

THE PRACTICE OF
CITIZENSHIP
ASHLEY



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THE PRACTICE OF
CITIZENSHIP

THE ASHLEY BOOKS
ON
THE NEW SOCIAL SCIENCE
FOR
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE PRACTICE OF CITIZENSHIP
EARLY EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION
MODERN EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION
MODERN EUROPE
AMERICAN HISTORY (REVISED)
THE NEW CIVICS

THE PRACTICE OF CITIZENSHIP

IN HOME, SCHOOL, BUSINESS, AND COMMUNITY

BY
ROSCOE LEWIS ASHLEY

AUTHOR OF
“THE NEW CIVICS”
“MODERN EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION”

47572
NEW YORK
THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

1922

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Set up and electrotyped. Published September, 1922

MACMILLAN COMPANY
BOSTON NEW YORK CHICAGO

PREFACE

EDUCATION for citizenship is one of the first duties of any self-governing society. The practice of citizenship is fully as important a duty. Since we learn by doing, we shall never become good citizens simply by studying civic relations and problems, that is, if we do no more than prepare ourselves for future duties and responsibilities. If citizenship were chiefly a matter of voting and of governmental activities, the schools would necessarily limit themselves to preparation for adult citizenship. But citizenship is far more than that. A person is a citizen because he is a member of a nation; but the nation is only the greatest and most important of a large number of civic groups of which all of us are members. A few of these groups, such as the state and municipality, are chiefly political; some of them, such as business organizations, are predominantly economic; but for boys or girls real membership is limited chiefly to two social groups, the home and the school.

In order that a citizen may be prepared for his life place in society he must learn as much as possible about that society, how it is organized, why it is organized in that way, and what is being done by each of the groups of which he is actively a member. Understanding is only the first step, but even to understand, one must not only study, one must also practice. It is impossible for the school boy and girl, by imagining themselves adult citizens, to take an active part in the work of government. It is the easiest thing in the world, however, for them to study, without pretense, the needs

of the home and of the school and to interest themselves in the activities of both. By active participation in home and school they very soon discover what are the rights and duties that go with their civic relations as members of those groups, and they actually perform the civic duties pertaining to their membership in them. Under proper direction and guidance, therefore, a student learns civic relationships typical of those which every adult citizen possesses, and consciously puts into practice the civic knowledge which he possesses. He learns to study a civic problem not as a thing by itself, but as a necessary or desirable activity to be performed by a particular group of which he may be a member.

If a student knows how any civic group is organized, if he understands what it is trying to do, if he perceives what every member ought to receive from this civic group and ought to contribute to it, he is in a position to understand his own actions, because he knows when he has fallen short of doing the right thing and can improve the work for which the group depends upon him and upon him alone. Is there any better way in which boys and girls can comprehend what good citizenship involves? Furthermore, if they realize in early youth that citizenship is a matter of the home and of the school—of things close at hand—as well as of polities, they will have an interest in citizenship that they would not possess if citizenship were to them some far off future possibility, associated with a remote government with which they are connected but a few times a year, at the polling place, in the tax collector's office, or in connection with some public service.

The author's interest in school and home citizenship has extended over a number of years. When these subjects have been studied by advanced high school students of civics, he has repeatedly been asked why

instruction was not given in these fundamentals very much earlier in the high school. The World War not only brought new impetus to the study of citizenship and democracy, but it gave us new insight into the real nature of both. The courses in patriotism given during that great conflict started systematic study of civic problems that were very near to the lives of the boys and girls. In the last year or two it has been possible, therefore, to present the material of these pages to younger students than was formerly possible. Unfortunately, the study of the new social citizenship has been greatly handicapped by lack of materials and by a scarcity of good reference books or articles. This defect has been remedied in part by the great interest of students in themselves as citizens and in civic affairs and problems that are of especial significance to them. As the best is none too good, it is only right and fitting that our schools should give to every boy and every girl a course that will help each to understand better his own place in society and to appreciate how he must work with his fellows for his own gain and for civic betterment.

The author wishes to express his indebtedness for photographs furnished, and his appreciation of the help given, by the numerous teachers and friends who have sent him copies of courses of studies, have answered questionnaires, or have offered suggestions. He is especially indebted to the following: Dr. Margaret S. Carhart, University of California, Southern Branch; Mr. Frank P. Goodwin, Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, formerly Director of Civic and Vocational Service in Cincinnati; Professor C. O. Davis, University of Michigan; Miss Mabel Hill, Dana Hall, Wellesley; Mr. J. G. Masters, Principal, Central High School, Omaha; Mr. D. E. Porter, Principal, High School of Commerce, Omaha; Lt. W.

D. Seay, Stanford University; Mr. W. F. Ewing, Principal, Pasadena High School; Miss Winnefred Millspaugh, Miss Mildred Wellborn, Miss Katherine Fleming, Mr. Leon Yakeley, Department of Social Science, Pasadena High School; Mr. Murray H. Hill, Pasadena High School; Mr. Roger Revelle, John Muir Junior High School, Pasadena; Miss Winifred Skinner, Librarian, Pasadena High School; Miss Blanche DeMotte, Pasadena Public Library; and his secretary, Miss Aileen V. Polhamus.

In a general account it is impossible to cover with exactness and in detail very many of the courses, methods, and opportunities given in the numerous high schools, junior high schools, and communities of our country. The author will be very glad to receive suggestions of work done in any citizenship class or plans used by any school.

PASADENA HIGH SCHOOL
PASADENA, CALIFORNIA
January, 1922

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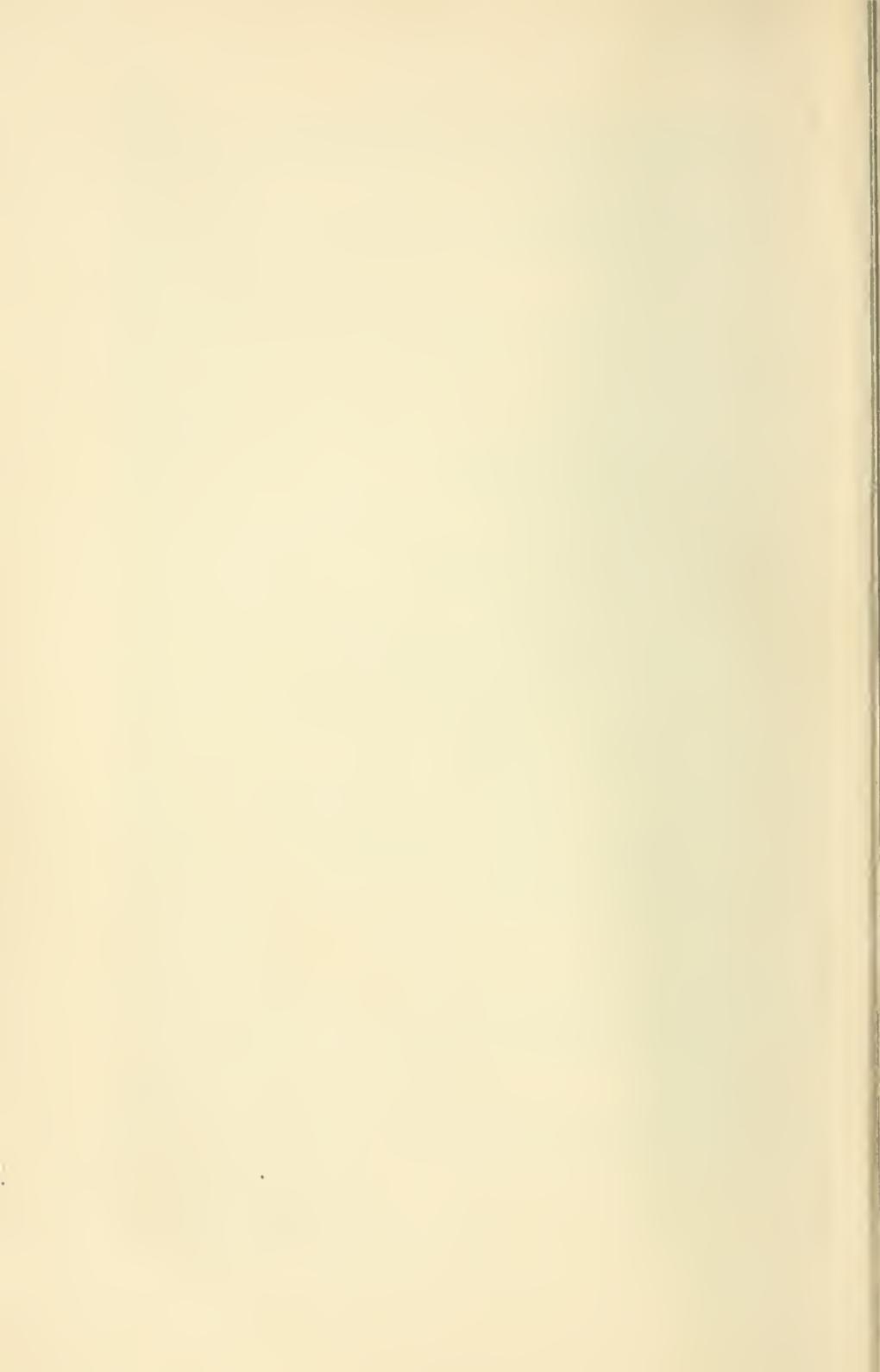
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SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

IT is the author's hope that in this little book on the practice of citizenship, he has been able to organize as a unit the different phases of citizenship that have been studied. Not every class can find time for the discussion of each of these phases and few will care to discuss all of the problems presented in the questions. If the school course permits, the whole book should be covered in the order in which the different parts are presented. If a teacher wishes to use a different arrangement, Part V may be studied as soon as Part I has been completed, in order that the student may have a better comprehension of his general rights and duties and of his position in society before he goes on with the study of more specific questions of citizenship. If the time is too short for the whole book and students have already made some study of government and of civic rights and duties, attention can be given chiefly or solely to Parts I to III, together with the first two chapters of Part IV, which are closely associated with school citizenship.

Many schools may wish to devote a half year to civics of the type presented in this text, giving a second semester to a somewhat different type of civics. If, for example, such a school wishes to specialize on government in the second half year, Parts I to IV, inclusive, of this book may be studied as a general introduction, material in Parts V and VI being kept for reference in connection with a text on government. If a school that desires such a double course prefers to give attention to the work done within the city in which the school is located,

the same plan may be followed, the class using for the second semester one of the excellent texts in community civics which emphasizes city government and devotes especial attention to the activities performed through the municipal authorities.

A third type of double course may place particular stress on the training of the student in pre-vocational work. Since our courses in citizenship, that is, elementary courses in civics, were originally designed for the student who may fail to graduate from a high school, it is quite as important that he should have some insight into the world of business into which he must soon try to fit himself, as into the world of government with which he does not actively coöperate as a youth. With such a double course, the author would recommend that the materials of this book be studied in the order in which they are prepared until Part IV is reached. The material of Part IV may be used or not, as desired. In connection with the chapters of that part, or as a substitute for them, a careful study may be made of vocational civics. If time permits, the student can then go on with the material of Parts V and VI.

In developing this course, the author and his colleagues were obliged to depend chiefly upon questions. He is not at all certain that the questions given at the ends of the chapters may not be a better basis of a course than the text itself; but he knows that his own students and the students of other teachers who have worked with him would have greatly appreciated material such as is given in these chapters, for study if not for recitation. In any course in elementary civics it has been customary to use a text not chiefly as a recitation book but largely as a guide for the study of local conditions and problems. The questions make it easier to adapt this text to such uses. But every school should gather

together all available material on home conditions, school courses of study, the organization of the student body or other student groups, and work done in connection with different student activities. To maintain interest and get the best results, work should be developed from the standpoint of the student's interests.

To a superficial observer it may seem that a large number of the questions at the ends of the chapters can be answered from the text. This is not the case. Only a few of them, those dealing with facts, can be answered in this way. Practically all of these questions have been used by the author with his own students. Few of them can be answered properly without a little additional study and thought. The majority of them may be considered as problems and studied from the problem angle. By studying them in groups, a fairly large number may be made the bases of projects, which are after all not very different from the topic problems that most teachers have been using for many years. A good book on projects, for example, McMurry's *Teaching by Projects*, is full of suggestion.

Although a course in citizenship must never lose sight of the group organizations of which we are citizen members and of the activities performed through these different groups, nevertheless, the first aim of the study of this type in citizenship is not true community civics, a difficult and advanced subject. As already stated in the Preface, it should really be a study of citizenship. It is the student who is the citizen, and he should see why a defect in the character of a member of a group makes him a defective citizen within that particular group. Moreover, it is the student who has rights and duties as a member of different groups to which he belongs. He must, therefore, know something about how each group is organized, what the group is trying to do, how it is trying to do it,

and why it is attempting that work. Then he must try to understand what is his place within that group or society, what the society does for him, that is, what rights he has as a member of it, what he must do in return, and what he ought in addition voluntarily to attempt. Only by the study and practice of citizenship within the groups of which he is actually and actively a member can the student understand its meaning. Only in these ways can we hope to develop a civic sense that will place stress upon responsibilities rather than upon rights, and upon opportunities for service rather than upon selfish advantage. We all despise the man who proclaims that the world owes him a living; we must help the student to despise the citizen, youth or adult, who takes the same view in regard to his civic relations.

Within the field covered by this text, so far as the writer knows, there are no other comprehensive books. Practically nothing has ever been written on the most important phase of youthful civics, school citizenship. A list of titles usable by students is given, however, at the end of this topic. Many general facts, not given in the text but necessary for answering questions, can be secured from books found in any library. A single copy of such an inexpensive volume as *The World Almanac* gives many of them. Less general material must be obtained from other sources. Reference has been made to but one set of social surveys, those of Cleveland, although many others have been made, and the results of several have been published. The securing of material of a more or less local nature, whether relating to the individual school or the community, must be a slow and arduous process. If the school library keeps a series of scrap books or a shelf of reports, it may be possible, with the years, to gather valuable material. A faculty committee on student organizations could aid the library by getting

together information on each of the student groups. This information should give the names of officers, a copy of the constitution and by-laws, or a statement of general principles, if there is no constitution, and summary reports of the work actually undertaken by each of these different organizations at different times during the year. A book of clippings taken from some local newspaper would be invaluable to supplement copies of the city charter and reports of the different departments of the local and state governments, as a guide to the work actually accomplished within the city or section.

As indicated above, a study of citizenship among boys and girls is to a very great extent a study of character. With the adolescent, personal character can not easily be separated from civic character. It is highly desirable, therefore, that teachers should understand as well as possible the boy or girl as a human being. To be satisfactory, this investigation should include the physical, the intellectual, the emotional, and the moral or spiritual sides of his nature. A study of this kind is without end and can not be attempted with the hope of complete solution. A few suggestions, however, may be helpful. For the understanding of the human organism, the author does not know of any general book equal to Crile's *Man, An Adaptive Mechanism*. For the study of human instincts and emotions, primary and complex, and of man as a member of society, McDougall's *Social Psychology* is unequalled. Particular attention should probably be paid to Chapters III to VII. A book very valuable to a teacher is Goddard's *Psychology of the Normal and Subnormal*. Interesting and stimulating material is given in Tracy's *Psychology of Adolescence*, Chapters IV to IX inclusive, especially Chapters VI, VII, and VIII. Berman's *Glands Regulating Personality* may be used with profit. On the brain, chapters XIX-XXI of Herrick's

Introduction to Neurology are excellent. Parmelee's *The Science of Human Behavior* is a valuable summary. Most of these books are fairly general and elementary, but they are probably more valuable to teachers than are the more comprehensive and advanced books on adolescence, human nature, and human behavior. Those who are interested and have the time would be well repaid if they examine the studies of the emotional nature of man given in Cannon's *Bodily Changes in Pain, Hunger, Fear, and Rage* and in Crile's *Origin and Nature of the Emotions*.

It is difficult to suggest a list of books that will be particularly usable by the student in connection with this text. The following, however, may be worth considering:

A SMALL LIBRARY

Clark, *The High School Boy*.

Dole, *The New American Citizen*.

Giles, *Vocational Civics*.

Lapp and Mote, *Learning to Earn*.

Towne, *Social Problems*.

Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*.

Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*.

Ross, *The Old World in the New*.

Ashley, *The New Civics*.

A longer list would include the books given above and would contain titles many of which are more valuable for teachers than for students.

A LARGER LIBRARY

Kaye, *Readings in Civil Government*.

Mangold, *Problems of Child Welfare*.

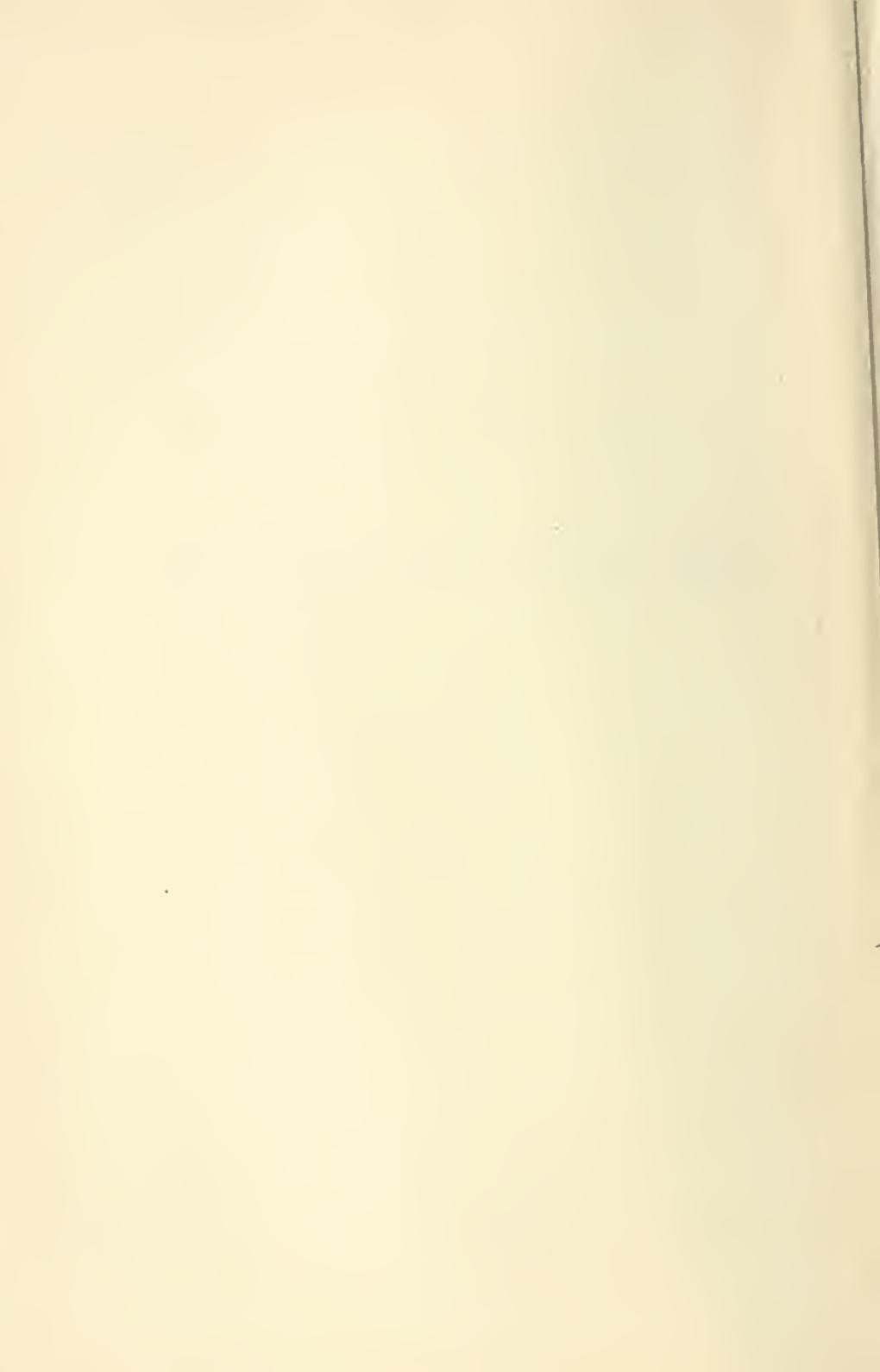
Nearing, *Woman and Social Progress*.

Gollomb, *That Year at Lincoln High*.

- Curtis, *Education through Play*.
McPheters, Cleaveland, and Jones, *Citizenship Dramatized*.
Reed, *Junior Wage Earners*.
Leavitt and Brown, *Elementary Social Science*.
Filene, *Careers for Women*.
Snedden, *The Problem of Vocational Guidance*.
Brewer, *The Vocational Guidance Movement*.
Bloomfield, *Youth, School, and Vocation*.
Bloomfield, *The Vocational Guidance of Youth*.
Bloomfield, *Readings in Vocational Education*.
Abbott, *Woman in Industry*.
Marriott, *Uncle Sam's Business*.
Marriott, *How Americans are Governed*.
Cleveland, *Organized Democracy*.
Hart, *Actual Government*.
Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*, abridged edition.
Munro, *The Government of the United States*.
Beard, *American City Government*.
Dunn, *Community Civics and Rural Life*.
Ross, *What is America?*
Bailey, *What is Democracy?*



THE PRACTICE OF CITIZENSHIP



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INTRODUCTION

1. What is an American Citizen?—Modern man lives in groups. The largest of these groups we call the nation. When a child is born, he¹ becomes a member of the nation to which his parents belong. In his early years, he takes little interest in his membership in the nation, because he is dependent upon his parents for his very existence. As the child grows older, he has a larger share in the world outside of his own home and neighborhood. The boy or girl goes to school, and after school days are past, finds a business position. When he is twenty-one, he is ready to cast his first ballot. He has become a full-fledged member or citizen of the nation.

Citizenship in different ages of the individual.

Some people have imagined that a man is not a citizen until he takes an active part in the work of governing the country, but this is an entirely wrong idea. *Citizenship is membership.* The child is a member or citizen from his earliest years, and his rights as a member are protected at all ages, especially at the time when they most need protection. When the child attends school, he is being prepared by society for a life career, not as a Robinson Crusoe, separated from his fellows, but as a member of society.

Citizenship as membership.

2. The Nature and Basis of Citizenship.—The term citizenship is ordinarily limited to membership in the

Extensive use of term citizenship.

¹Although the masculine pronoun is used almost exclusively here and later in this book, the statements include girls as well as boys, women as well as men.

nation. There is no reason, however, why it may not be used in connection with membership in any group that is civic in character. It may, therefore, be an affair of the family, of the school, or of the community. To a pupil, school citizenship is fully as important as is citizenship in the nation.

Needs, relationships,
and group
membership.

As members of any group, we have relationships with other members and with the group as a whole. We do something for them, and they, in return, do many things for us. What we do, what they do, and what the group does depends upon needs which we have, which they have, and which the group has. In the study of American citizenship, it is necessary, therefore, that we begin with *needs*. Next we must study the *relationships* we have with other people, which grow out of those needs. Then we must discover *how each group is organized* and how its members work together in order to supply some special set of needs, not necessarily of their own but of other persons in their nation or in other nations.

Citizenship
in different
groups.

3. What a Study of Citizenship Includes.—To understand American citizenship, a careful study should be made of the home, in which membership is important, particularly in early childhood and youth. A course in American citizenship should include an especially careful examination of school citizenship, because the school is playing a very large part in the present life of every schoolboy and schoolgirl, as well as in the preparation of all pupils for later work among their fellows. It is desirable that it include some study of the part which every individual may have, and should have, in the world of business. It should discuss the governments under which we live and the work carried on by public officials of city, state, and nation.

Study of
group mem-
bership.

If we are to make a study of American citizenship, our course should make clear to us the position that we occupy

as members in each of the numerous groups to which we belong. To do this we must understand our relationships with other members of each group, the rights that we have within that group, and the duties that we must perform for the other members. We must understand that these rights and duties are not enjoyed or exercised chiefly through the government, because they are not necessarily political in character. They are connected with every group with which we are now associated or shall be connected in the future.

4. How Citizenship is Acquired.—As citizenship is a very important matter, it is defined in the Constitution of the United States. According to the fourteenth amendment, "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside." We see from this statement that citizenship may be acquired either by birth or by naturalization.¹ Most citizens of the United States are members of the American nation because they were born in this country, but a very large number are natives of other countries who migrated to America. Foreigners are allowed to become members of this country by taking out citizenship papers; we call this process naturalization.

Acquisition
by birth or
naturaliza-
tion.

¹ §290



PART I
FOUNDATIONS OF CITIZENSHIP

CHAPTER I

PERSONAL NEEDS AND RELATIONSHIPS

1. General
 - a. Individual needs and personal civic relationships
 - b. Direct and indirect relationships
 - c. One-sided and two-sided relationships
2. Rights and duties
 - a. Childhood rights to life and health
 - b. The right to favorable surroundings
 - c. Childhood obligations
 - d. Change from one-sided to two-sided personal relationships
 - e. Rights and duties as opposite sides of fully developed relationships

Conclusion

- a. Rights of the citizen
- b. Duties of the citizen

GENERAL

5. Individual Needs and Personal Civic Relationships.—Human needs are so various that no individual supplies himself with more than a few of the things necessary to his existence and comfort. In all probability, no one of the articles of clothing that he wears has been made with his own hands, and very little of the food that he eats has been grown by himself. The house in which he lives has been built by one set of men, painted by another, and provided with plumbing by a third. His carpets have probably come from one state, his furniture from a second, and his pictures from a third. His everyday needs and wants have been supplied by the exertions of a multitude of workers, some of whom live in

Extent of our
personal
needs and
wants.

America, but many of whom reside in foreign lands. Although these articles satisfy personal needs, and many of them are necessities without which he would suffer greatly or die, they are not furnished to him unless something is given in return. If the person who uses the goods is not self-supporting, someone else must assume the burden of paying for the articles.

How relationships grow out of needs.

Since we do not depend upon ourselves for most of the things that we need, and since our needs are exceedingly numerous, we have relationships with all the people who make or provide the goods that we are using. We are dependent upon the people who grow the food or manufacture the articles or transport them from the place where they are produced to our own community. We therefore have relationships (1) with the persons who give these articles to us, (2) with those other persons from whom our parents or friends purchased them, and (3) with those more distant producers who at some time and in some place helped to make these goods. With each one of these numerous persons we have *civic relations* because they do something for us, and presumably we do something for them.¹

What constitutes a direct relationship.

6. Direct and Indirect Relationships.—It is worth our while to distinguish between two classes of persons with whom we have relations. With some of these people we come face to face, as, for example, with members of our family or of our class in school. With these people we have *direct relations* because we deal with them personally and directly. Although we have direct relations, we must not imagine that we necessarily give them as much as they give us. A mother does for a little child far more than the child can possibly repay, and yet the relationship is direct.

¹ When other people pay our bills, they are the persons who do something for the many workers who produce the goods that we use day by day.

We have indirect relations with any one with whom we deal indirectly, that is, one with whom we do not come face to face, for example, with the owner of a grocery store from whose clerks we buy flour, vegetables, and canned goods; and we have relations even more indirect with the miller who ground the flour. Our connection is still more remote and indirect with the farmer who grew the wheat that was ground into flour. We have relationships with all of these men because we depend upon them.

Why most relationships are indirect.

7. One-sided and Two-sided Relationships.—When a man buys or sells anything, it is supposed that he will receive an equivalent of what he gives or will give an equivalent of what he receives. When one youth or adult has dealings with another in other fields than business, that which is given ought to correspond to that which is received. For example, the right of a student in school to good teaching means not only that the teacher should teach the subject well, but that the student should do his share, that is, should perform his duty by studying his lesson in advance and by giving attention in class. Each gives value for value. In most relationships, accordingly, we can enjoy advantages or rights *if we accept the obligations which go with those rights.* Almost every relationship, therefore, being two-sided, creates something that we may call a right and demands in return something that we may call an obligation. The two are inseparable, for the right of one *is* the obligation of the other.

Why most relationships are two-sided.

Some relationships are very one-sided. Most of those in the family are of this character. Every mother does many things for her young son or daughter without expecting or receiving much in return. In relation to her children her rights are far less numerous than her duties. For that very reason, a young child in dealing with either of his parents has many more rights than obligations. This single example shows us, however,

Nature and disadvantages of one-sided relationships.

that if one of two persons who have dealings with each other has an unusually large number of rights, the other has a correspondingly large number of duties. Only the very young or the very old have any right to expect one-sided relationships, which bring them many advantages and few obligations.

RIGHTS AND DUTIES

Why a child
has relatively
more rights
than an
adult.

Civic im-
portance of
good health
and good
homes.

Protection
of the little
child by the
home, com-
munity,
state, and
nation.

8. Childhood Rights to Life and Health.—As suggested above, for the boy or girl, citizenship deals more with rights than with duties; for the older citizen, it is concerned chiefly with obligations. The reason is that the needs of the child are great in proportion to his ability to help others. In childhood and even in youth he is dependent on those with whom he is associated.

When a child is born, he becomes not simply a citizen of the United States, but, what is more directly valuable to him during his early years, a member of a home. To a large extent the rights of the child are his rights in the home. He is entitled to a good start in life. Two of the greatest rights of childhood are the rights to a fair degree of health and to a place in a real home. The child who lacks either of these is deprived of a large part of his heritage as an American citizen. If he comes into the world weak, imperfectly developed, with constitutional tendencies to disease, he is not only handicapped in his personal fight with life, but he is denied the opportunity of giving to others the help and support that should be offered by a normally healthy child, youth, or adult. Usually good health is an important element of good citizenship.

9. The Right to Favorable Surroundings.—Whatever may be his physical and mental heritage, the little child has the right to clean, healthy, favorable surroundings. The home, the community, and the nation must each do its

share in guarding this right of childhood. Lack of cleanliness and tidiness may be due to the negligence of the home maker. After all, the ignorance and carelessness of mothers may be a minor cause of infant mortality. Much more important are unsanitary surroundings—sunless tenements and filthy alleys—failures of the community rather than of the family. The high death rate among infants in the slum is caused chiefly by over-crowding, poor milk, and scarcity of fresh air—in these respects the public has failed to protect its children. Much has been done in our cities to give the babies of



Courtesy National Child Labor Committee

TENEMENT HOME

the slum a "fighting chance," but society owes them even more careful guardianship in order that they may have health as well as life.

In later years, the home, the community, and the nation must furnish surroundings which make it possible for the child to be a healthy, honest, and intelligent citizen.

Rights to
good environ-
ment and
good oppor-
tunities.

The *home* must be clean and it should be cheerful. It should be a real home in which the members of the family live in harmony and give the child and youth proper training and discipline. The *community* has not done enough when good schools are provided; it must furnish a decent moral atmosphere. The *state* and *nation* must make good laws and encourage a public sentiment which demands a square deal. All youth must be taught how to know right and to avoid wrong in order that they may



SUBSTANTIAL FARM HOUSE

grow to manhood and womanhood with high ideals, honest standards of conduct, and minds not warped by prejudice and hate.

10. Childhood Obligations.—In spite of the many things that are done for the welfare and benefit of the child, little is expected of him in return. He can not pay for the food that he eats or for the clothing that he wears.

Why the
child can
not repay
those who
help him.

He can not make any complete and suitable return for the training that is given to him, or for the good advice that is offered, or, most important of all, for the love that is showered upon him.

In return for the things that he receives, the child can show the right spirit. When his parents or even his older brothers or sisters try to teach him anything, he can at least learn willingly and express his thanks for the kindness shown him. One must not expect too much gratitude from the child who is helped by his elders, for even adults are not always gracious about accepting advice. Love, however, the child can return in some measure, although his love is chiefly affection, without much unselfishness or sacrifice.

What the
child can
do.

11. Change from One-sided to Two-sided Personal Relationships.—Most young people depend upon their parents for food, clothing, and shelter long after they cease to be dependent in many other respects. Until they have finished their education and gone into the larger world, they can not expect to be completely self-supporting. Few care, however, to have a sense of dependence upon someone else. Especially is this true of boys in their dealings with one another, for in many ways boys are anxious to be grown up as soon as possible. They dislike to take from their friends favors which they can not repay. Unfortunately, they do not apply the same reasoning to their parents or to those from whom in childhood they received much, giving little in return.¹ For some reason, many girls are troubled even less by obligation to others. Although girls are often helpful in the home, nevertheless it is probably true that they have been slower than their brothers in

Interest of
boys in
making the
change early.

Attitude of
girls toward
the change.

¹ It is only fair, therefore, that everyone should have opportunity to examine those relationships of his which in the past were one-sided, but of which he does not always stop to think. It is probable that when he studies these old, one-sided relationships, he will be anxious to change them as soon as possible into more evenly balanced relationships.

becoming independent. This may be due in part to the fact that until recent years mature girls and even women have depended very greatly upon the wage earner of the family.

Relationship
of rights and
duties to
each other.

12. Rights and Duties as Opposite Sides of Fully Developed Relationships.—When a boy grows to manhood, he very soon is obliged to give as much as he receives. As shown above, rights and duties are very closely interrelated. We might almost say that, for an adult, where there is no obligation or duty, there will be no right, because there is nothing to which the right corresponds. The person who gives a service to an employer may demand a wage, whereas the idler or the unemployed man has no such right. The autoist who continually breaks traffic regulations ought not to claim damages if his car is injured by that of another who fails to give the proper signals or cuts a corner.

Difficulties
in seeing
the practical
connection
between
rights and
duties.

Simple though this idea is that *needs lead to relationships* and that *relationships are two-sided*, with rights on the one hand and duties on the other, even some adults do not seem to understand why they can not have rights without having obligations. Many other adults, who do understand fully that if they have rights, they must assume obligations, do not always realize that the rights and the obligations go together, because they both grow out of the same relationship of one person with another. Nor do they realize that in order to have more rights they must be willing to accept and to fulfil a larger number of obligations. The student who works faithfully deserves a greater reward than his indolent neighbor. A bachelor can not ask for the joys of family life with none of the expenses and other burdens of a home. Let us notice again that an obligation is not arbitrary; it is simply the duty which one must perform in order that he may enjoy the corresponding right.

13. Conclusion—Rights of the Citizen.—If we think of a citizen as a *member* of a nation, we obtain at once a clear idea of his position. The very fact that he is a member gives him many rights that every member of a group enjoys. The group must look after his right to *life*. The protection of health is one phase of the protection of life. The right to *work* and the right to *play* are among the inestimable benefits which society should confer upon its members. A man has also the right to *protection from dangers*, such as epidemics of disease, robbery, unjust prices or wages, or arbitrary and inefficient government.

The right to *associate with others* is one which a citizen should enjoy and should exercise. No person may claim all of the advantages of citizenship and then live in seclusion and do no work with his fellows. Because society has organized groups, for example, the family, the community, and the nation, the individual has *his place and share within each of these groups*. He has the right to coöperate with his parents, with his neighbors, with his fellow townsmen, and with his fellow citizens of the nation.

The rights of one individual should not be greater than those of another in the same situation. If one citizen is to enjoy certain rights and privileges, he must concede as much to others. The only way in which he could secure additional privileges would be to deny them to others; and that would be contrary to the very principles underlying these rights.

14. Duties of the Citizen.—With each of the rights mentioned in the preceding section there must go some corresponding obligation. From the public point of view the life of one citizen is no more valuable than that of another. In olden days it was customary to take a life for a life, but the modern idea is not that one life taken compensates for another life lost, but that one life given

Some rights
which must
be protected.

Special
rights of
association.

Why pro-
tection for
one means
protection
for all

Some duties
that can not
be neglected.

in service permits others to enjoy life in greater abundance. The right to good health can not be claimed if the individual risks his health continually and does not do those things necessary to keep in good physical condition. Since public health and sanitation require the coöperation of all individuals, the one who claims the benefits of public protection must do his share in every way that he can. We may not like to be kept out of school when suffering from whooping cough, measles, or similar maladies, but the health and welfare of all demand our exclusion.

The place
that one
must fill in
society.

If one is to associate with his fellows, he must not only be a fit fellow with whom to associate, but he should be such a citizen that others will gain much from acquaintance and friendship with him. If he needs, as all of us do, the coöperation of those with whom he lives and works, he must expect to contribute what he can. As President Woodrow Wilson declared in a proclamation dealing with the first draft for the American army in 1917: "All must pursue one purpose. The nation needs all men; but it needs each man, not in the field that will most pleasure him, but in the endeavor that will best serve the common good."

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Questions

1. Name five commodities which satisfy different types of human needs, and give some idea where each may be obtained. Show why our needs lead to relationships. Name three different sets of persons with whom we have relationships.
2. Explain what is meant by direct relationships. When is a relationship indirect with someone in our own community? Why are most indirect relationships with people at a distance? Illustrate direct relationships with individuals and with groups. Do the same for indirect relationships. Explain direct and indirect relationships that are political, economic, and social, giving two examples of each, if possible.
3. Why should a normal relationship be two-sided? Show that rights are only the advantages which we have from relationships. If we have rights, why should we assume or meet the corresponding obligations? Explain why the relationships of a child to almost any other person are one-sided and for his advantage; in other words, why he has more rights than obligations.
4. Name some of the rights of a child. Why should he have these rights, and from what different persons or groups may he demand them? Distinguish between what the home, the community, and the nation does for the health and development of the child.
5. Name several important rights and the corresponding duties. Explain why a man has more or fewer rights than a boy. Does an employer ordinarily have more or less numerous duties than an employee? Which man will do more injury to society if he is dishonest?
6. Discuss the following principles briefly: Needs lead to relationships; Normal relationships are two-sided; "Rights and duties are very closely interrelated"; Rights and duties are inseparable, for the right of one person is the obligation of the other party to the relationship.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL NEEDS AND GROUP ORGANIZATION

1. The small group and its relations
 - a. How people are organized in groups
 - b. How groups work together
 - c. Our direct dependence on groups
 - d. Our indirect dependence on distant groups
2. Public needs and government
 - a. How public needs lead to government
 - b. General nature of government
 - c. Need of written constitutions
 - d. The state, its activities, and its authority
 - e. Work of the state and its limitations
3. Some economic needs and society
 - a. Teamwork to satisfy needs through government
 - b. Teamwork in other fields
 - c. Coöperation in the building of a house
 - d. Coöperation in production
 - e. Buyer and seller—markets
 - f. Business organization of yesterday and to-day
 - g. Unity of social organization

Conclusion

The place of the individual in group organization

THE SMALL GROUP AND ITS RELATIONS

The inter-dependence
of people
in groups.

15. **How People are Organized in Groups.**—No man or woman in America to-day lives exclusively for himself; no man or woman lives exclusively by himself. We are not Robinson Crusoes existing on distant islands and separated from our fellows; for, however solitary a life any one of us may live, he is in the midst of people and is dependent upon a host of others who aid him and whom

he in turn aids. We are so accustomed to being with people, to acting together, and to helping each other in hundreds of ways that, if we do not give the matter careful consideration, we may deny our dependence upon others and the dependence of others upon us. When we do think, we realize that the people about us are organized in groups, each group existing for a particular purpose and doing a particular work.

This school class of which we are members is such a group. It is not made up thoughtlessly; it has been organized carefully, with a teacher at its head and a large number of boys and girls, or possibly only boys or only girls, in order to do one thing—to help us gain a better education.

The whole school is a combination of such classes and groups, which may not be very numerous, or which, on the contrary, may include hundreds of different class groups. It is a true group in itself, by itself, and for itself. This single illustration shows us that a group exists for a definite purpose, that it is not made up in a haphazard way, of anyone and everyone, but only of persons interested in a definite object, and that in order to be organized, each group must have definite and fairly permanent sets of members, with leaders.

16. How Groups Work Together.—Not only is each of the thousands and hundreds of thousands of groups which exist in America to-day organized for a particular purpose, but each member of any group has dealings with every other member; and those dealings or relationships are fairly definite and permanent in character. They are definite because they grow out of a definite need. A pupil in school is in a class for the purpose of learning. As he wants to have certain information, knowledge, and skill, he joins a large number of other boys and girls in the formation of a class, because a class

The class as a group.

The school as an organized group.

Needs as the basis of group cooperation.

under the direction of a teacher is an excellent means of securing the desired knowledge and training. The worker in a shop needs the wages that the employer gives him, just as the employer needs the services of the worker in order to produce the goods that he is making. Moreover, the employer produces not for himself but for a consumer, and the consumer or customer buys not because he wishes to dispose of his money, but because he needs or wants the article that the employer and worker have produced. Back of everything that we do, therefore, is the need or want which we are trying to supply—a need or want which we can not supply by ourselves and for ourselves.

Inter-dependence
of groups
and their
members.

17. Our Direct Dependence on Groups.—We speak of American society, that is, the American people, as being organized in a very complex way; but the expression means little to us. To understand how complex present day social organization is, we must keep in mind the fact that we are members of a large number of groups and that each of these groups is well organized and has numerous relations with the others. We must remember further, that each member is likely to have important and numerous relationships, not only with other members of his group, but possibly with distant groups.

Some groups
of which we
are mem-
bers.

It might be interesting for each member of this class to name several groups of which he is regularly a member. He would have no hesitation in naming first, the family, secondly, the school. Each is a member of the city or township in which he lives. Each is probably a citizen of this, our great country. There would be more hesitation in naming other organizations, because not all of us would be members of the same type of group. In high schools that have student organization, each is, or ought to be, a member of the student body, and possibly of some school club or society. Some are members of

Christian Endeavor societies and the Y. M. C. A.; some of tennis clubs or other boys' or girls' societies. The number of groups of which a boy or girl is a member is small, however, compared with that to which an adult belongs, especially the business man.

We have direct face to face relationships, however, with other groups to which we can not belong. Probably not a week passes in which we do not ride on the street cars, or use a telephone, or make purchases of groceries, or pencils, or candy. We do these things because we need to be transported from place to place or because we, or others associated with us, require the goods that we purchase. In order to supply these needs, we have had direct relationships with the street car company through the conductor, with the telephone company through the operator, with a store through a clerk, or with a church organization through the minister or a singer.

Other groups
with which
we have
direct
relationships.

18. Our Indirect Dependence on Distant Groups.— General.
For the satisfaction of our needs we depend not simply upon these individuals or groups with which we have direct relationships, but upon thousands of other persons at a distance with whom our relationships are indirect. If we consider simply the commodities that we use each day in our homes, we are amazed at the number of persons with whom we are indirectly associated and upon whom, in a sense, we are dependent. Even if we think of just one person as producing each of these commodities, we should still have relationships with a very large number of people.

A few examples will show us more clearly how *society to-day is woven into a network of inter-relationships*. Our shoes were made, probably, in a distant city and passed through hundreds of hands in the process of manufacture, transportation, and sale. Our shoe laces probably were handled by dozens of people in addition to the

Indirect
dependence
for articles
of clothing.

persons who produced the materials out of which the lacees were made. One does not need to know much about the manufacture of cloth to realize that there are a great many processes in the production of the raw material, in the spinning, weaving, and other steps which must be completed before the cloth is finished. If we consider for a moment the many other workers who handle the cloth in transportation, in the stores of the wholesaler and retailer, or in the manufacture of clothing, we can see with how many people we touch hands, as it were, for any garment that we use.

Bread: the
multifold
relationships
that it
represents.

We could repeat this study with every article we eat. Bread is the commonest form of food, but it may lead us to the Dakota wheat fields, to the middle-western grain elevators and flour mills, as well as to the railway company, the baker, the groceryman, and the deliveryman. The people engaged directly in the making of bread do not include innumerable others, upon whom the makers of that bread were dependent—the men who made the plow used by the farmer, the men who built the mill or ground the mill stones, or made the machinery used in the mill, the men who made the sacks or the barrels in which the flour is kept, the men who built the railroad, the locomotives, or the cars that transport the grain and flour, or the men who mined the coal used for power.

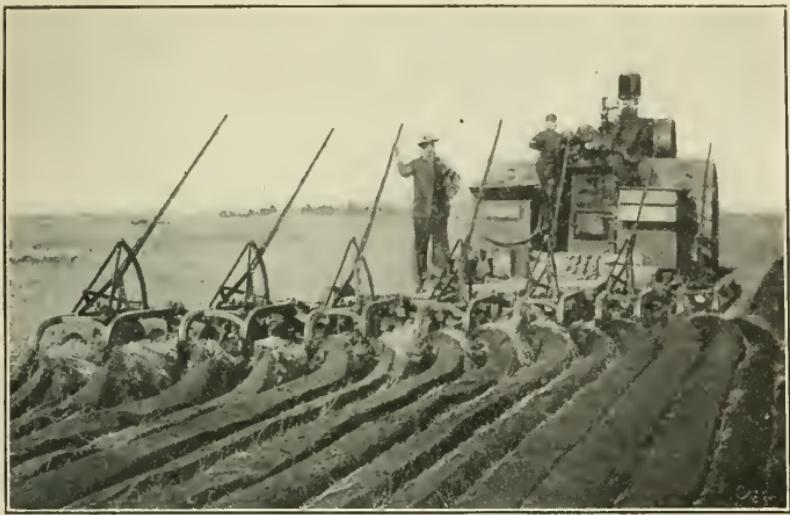
Complexity
of modern
civic organiza-
tion.

We need not multiply instances; certainly enough has been said to show how infinitely complex is the business organization of America to-day. Almost as complex is the political and quite as complex is the social organization of this United States of America.

PUBLIC NEEDS AND GOVERNMENT

General
needs that
are satisfied
by group
action.

19. How Public Needs Lead to Government.—Besides food, clothing, shelter, and other personal requirements, there are many things which we need and which can not



Plowing



Harvesting

WHEAT



A Grain Elevator



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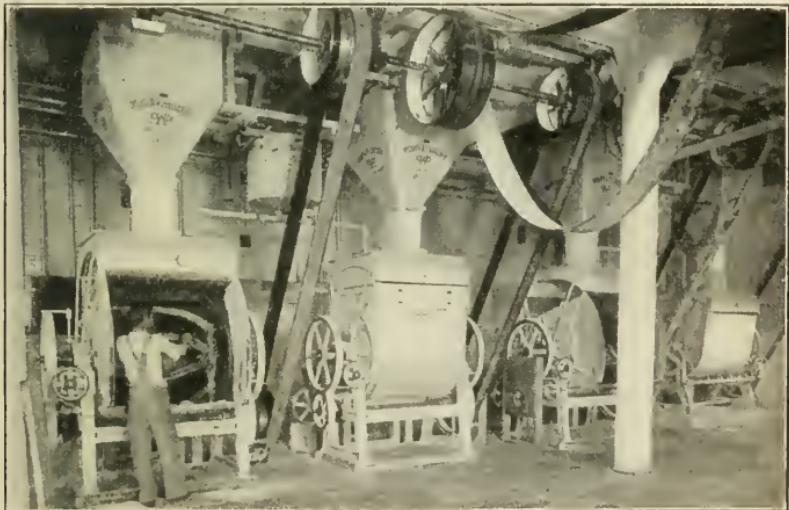
Transporting Wheat from New Orleans

THE MAKING



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Milling Flour



Mixing Dough

OF BREAD



Baking Bread



Sale of Bread in Grocery

BREAD

be bought from other people. In order that we may go from our homes to the stores where goods are sold, there must be highways, which will, of course, cross the property of many persons. The property owners or public representatives must decide upon points to be connected and agree upon a route to be followed. In order that they may use the highway to the best advantage, it must be constructed in the same way throughout its entire length. A road which, even for a short distance, is nothing but a narrow footpath is useless for automobiles, and therefore is valueless for trade of any importance.

More necessary than roads is *protection* for ourselves and our property. If some villain steals our food or burns our houses, we shall suffer personal want; nor can we properly protect ourselves if obliged to depend exclusively on our own efforts. Have you ever stopped to think what would happen if every person from whom anything is stolen were obliged to hunt up the offender, and, if the thief could be found, to punish him for his misdeed? In how many cases would it be possible to learn who the guilty person was? How long would it be before thieves would seize property and murderers would destroy life without any risk whatever to themselves? Is it not clear that life and property can not be safe unless the *members of a community organize* to protect themselves against wrongdoers? Not only must they organize for this purpose, but if serious dangers are to be avoided, they must have for their protection some *uniform rules* which people must obey. Furthermore, since what is everybody's business is nobody's business, certain members of the community must see that the rules or laws are obeyed and that lawbreakers are brought to justice and punished.

These are but two examples of the many public needs that must be met if we are to continue to live and do business.

Why concerted action is necessary for protection of life and property.

Public needs and personal needs.

Our property will be of little value to us if any one may take it without risk of punishment. We shall not long enjoy the privilege of purchasing what is necessary for the satisfaction of our personal needs, unless there are laws under which business may be transacted. In short, public needs must be satisfied before we can satisfy our personal needs. Indeed, there can be no civilization such as that in the United States to-day, unless we may live and care for our personal interests in security. This security can be preserved in no other way than by a permanent and responsible set of organizations, our governments, which exist for the purpose of satisfying our public or political needs.

Usual divisions of government.

20. General Nature of Government.—The governments which look after general public needs are *local*, as those of cities, towns, and counties, *state*, and *national*. Each group has its organization of officials, small and simple if public needs are few, or large and complex if needs are numerous, as in a city such as greater New York or in the national government. These sets of officials represent the political organizations or governments of their respective groups. We speak of the machinery and activities of these political organizations as government.

The departments of government.

Almost all of our governments are divided into three departments. One of these is composed of representatives from territorial districts. This is the *legislative department*, which makes the laws. There is usually but one person at the head of the *executive department*, which enforces the laws. Frequently the members of the executive department simply apply the law or attend to other duties that are called administrative. The judges make up the *judicial department*, which interprets the laws.¹

¹ These officials constitute the machinery of government and their work constitutes the activities of government. As these governments represent us and should satisfy our public needs, they must possess sufficient authority to accomplish their work.

The work of our government does not consist solely of activities that we call political. To be sure, there must be laws that specify not only who may vote and what powers the government shall have, but, in addition, there must be some organization, clothed with authority, that will protect our rights to make economic contracts and to hold property. The government does this just as it protects our social rights (§§197-199)

Varied activities of government.

21. Need of Written Constitutions.—In the United States we speak of our government as democratic. By democratic or popular government we mean that the people decide what kind of government they shall have, organize each government, and select the most important officials. In order that the people may have such governments as they need and want, and in order that those governments shall not interfere with the rights of the citizens, the people have made for themselves important fundamental laws called *written constitutions*.

Importance of a popular fundamental law.

The constitutions may be amended to meet new needs of the people, but their rigidity prevents hasty change. A constitution can not be altered by any government, nor can any government make any change in its own powers. *All changes in an old constitution must be made by the people, who established that constitution and who may abolish the old constitution and have a new one in its place.*

Popular amendment of constitutions.

22. The State, Its Activities and Its Authority.—The largest political societies with which we are familiar to-day are the different nations¹, such as France, Great Britain, and the United States. It is necessary that each of these societies should have a group organization of the whole nation for self-preservation and self-protection, and to look after all other common public interests of

Activities of the state.

¹A nation is a large group of people, independent of any other similar group, living within a definite territory, under a single government, and having common ideals on all important subjects.

the people. Such a *political organization* of an independent nation living within a definite area and controlling its affairs through a central government, aided by other necessary governments, is called a *state*.¹

In order that the people of a country shall be held together as a united body and continue to do the public work for which the group was organized, it is necessary that the state shall possess sufficient authority to protect its people and do its work thoroughly. In modern nations this authority must come from the people themselves and must be respected by all of the people, even by those who do not wish to obey the laws. Moreover, the power or *authority of the whole group acting as a unit must be greater than the power of any of the smaller groups within it*. For example, a nation like the United States must have authority over the commonwealths, the states, of which it is composed. However, if the work to be done is not work of a general or national nature, that is, if the tasks are of a somewhat local character, each commonwealth may be left to act in the way it thinks best. Any social or economic group, such as a family or a business corporation or a railway system, must observe the rules laid down by the nation, acting through its united political organization, the state.

23. Work of the State and Its Limitations.—First, the work of the state through its government is *protective*. It protects the nation from outside dangers. It guards the nation also from internal perils by protecting the just rights of individual members and of smaller groups within the society. Second, the work of the state is *regulative*. It decides what relations individuals shall have to other individuals, as parent to child, or as employer to employee. It also decides what shall be the relations of an individual

¹A state is *sovereign*, that is, it is supreme over its governments and over any other group existing within it. A state is a *political organization*; a nation is a *united people*.

Authority
of the state.

The work
of a state.

to any group, as that of a voter to a political party or a taxpayer to a city. It regulates relations between groups, as the relations of labor and capital. Third, a state's work is *directive* when it undertakes to promote the interests of the whole nation, or of any group, or of any member. Protective tariffs, public libraries, and agricultural experiment stations are examples of tasks undertaken for the welfare of certain groups.

Our governments must control many more actions of the citizens than formerly, not simply to promote their welfare, but to give them protection. For instance, no one doubts the right of the government to pass and enforce all proper measures for the health of the community. This may lead in crowded cities to regulations that are very obnoxious to individual householders. Dealers may be obliged to submit to inspection and confiscation of goods which might injure members of the community. Factories are continually under supervision to see that the health of operatives is in no wise endangered. Too little supervision, like too much, is a mark of poor government.

Limits of
the sphere
of govern-
ment.

SOME ECONOMIC NEEDS AND SOCIETY

24. Teamwork to Satisfy Needs Through Government.—Good government is absolutely necessary to any people. Unless order is kept, little can be done. Unless the right laws are made and are enforced against law-breakers, the ordinary citizen can not live and do business in security. Government, however, does not plan to do many things for us; it gives us opportunity to do them for ourselves. Most of the real business of living is outside of the sphere of government.

Government
as an op-
portunity
giver.

Nevertheless, government enters in some way into almost every part of our daily lives. Because it is ready to punish offenders, we can walk on the streets without

Action
made possi-
ble by
government.

being injured by those who may wish to do us harm. Because our property is protected, the criminal who steals or destroys is likely to be caught and punished severely. When a contract is made, the government insists that the agreement shall be kept by both parties. The milk that we drink comes from a dairy which public officials have inspected. For this reason we know that the cows are healthy, that the dairy is sanitary, and that the milk is delivered in clean bottles. The street cars upon which we ride to school belong to a system under government supervision. Before the railway company may raise its fares, public permission must be obtained. At all times it is supposed to furnish respectable service to the public. These are a few examples of ways in which the government is working for us and with us.

Government as an example of group action.

After all, *government is only an instrument or agency*, created by us to do the general work which is needed in the community, state, or nation, for the benefit of all. In organizing government, and in helping our government officials to carry on their work, we act together. A government is therefore the best example we can find of teamwork in the district which is served by that government.

Team-work is universal

25. Teamwork in Other Fields.—The term teamwork is used most commonly of *voluntary coöperation*. That is, it is applied to tasks that are not definitely organized and planned by the whole society or group for which the work is done. Teamwork enters into practically every activity of life. Even Robinson Crusoe had his man Friday to help him. In the home, in the classroom, on the playground when games are in progress, we are working together to get the things that we want. In the shop, clerk, bookkeeper, and office boy are doing what they can to increase the volume of business and satisfy the needs of customers.

Some teamwork is poor because the different workers are not pulling together. If friction exists between teacher and pupil, there is a lack of teamwork and coöperation, and little education is secured. On the football field, where eleven earnest, husky young fellows are striving with might and main to beat their opponents, *it is teamwork that wins*. The man that carries the ball may make the goal and win most applause, but some share of the credit goes to every man on the team who has done what is expected of him.

The individual and his team.

26. Coöperation in the Building of a House.—If a man wishes to build a house, the government may tell him what he can not do, but it will not do the work. If he does not wish to erect the house himself, he makes an agreement with a contractor. The contractor in turn employs his own foreman and gangs of men to do the work. Very seldom does one contractor do everything. To one man he lets a subcontract to dig a cellar, to a second a subcontract for the plumbing, to a third a subcontract for the painting. Possibly there are a dozen or more subcontractors who work on a single building before its completion. Each of these subcontractors has his own set of men. Each man is a member of his own little team and is also indirectly a member of the larger team which is building the structure. If a building is to be constructed well and quickly, it is necessary that these different groups of experts complete their own tasks within their time limit, in order that the next set of men may continue the task of building. Without teamwork, carried on under the leadership of those who plan and direct, it would not be possible to build the house.

Teamwork of construction gangs and their members.

A builder must have the coöperation of many other workers and business organizations. Among these are the truckmen who deliver the materials, the railway that brings goods from a distance, the mills that turn out the

Help given in building by other and more distant workers.

cement and lumber, and the steel plant that provides the structural steel, hardware, or pipes for rough plumbing. Each set of producers completes some task of construction that is *directly* before it, just as each one is helping *indirectly* with the work of building which is being done at a distance.

Cooperation among workers and others.

27. Coöperation in Production.—It can thus be seen that coöperation is found at all times in every part of our great business world. Each workman has some share because a task has been left to him which will not be well done if he fails to report for duty, if he is careless, or if he does not understand his work. The workers, unskilled, skilled, and supervisory, form a great team coöperating with one another. But teamwork is not limited to workingmen. There is coöperation among all who have a share in any business activity. The capitalist who furnishes the money, the landlord who owns the hillside upon which the trees grow, the man who manages the enterprise are each making some contribution to the world of business.

Necessary dependence and co-operation of capital and labor.

A different type of coöperation is carried on by the business man in relation to the worker. The one furnishes the factory, the machinery, and the materials; the other provides the skill, the service, and the physical strength. *Capital* and *labor* are quite apt to forget their dependence upon each other and their need of working together as a team in order to get results. The capitalist who pays poor wages and treats his men badly does not realize that he is reducing the amount of his output. The worker who is a slacker thinks that he is doing harm to his employer, when he is really injuring himself and his fellows because he does little and does it poorly. There is no part of the work of producing goods, that is, of creating wealth, in which men may not work together for their mutual advantage.

28. Buyer and Seller—Markets.—In these days of large factories most goods are sold at a distance from the place where they are made. It is necessary, therefore, not only to manufacture them, but to carry them to the consumer. The place where goods are sold or the actual selling of commodities is called a *market*. Markets are not used solely for the benefit of either the customer or the producer. The farmer wants to sell his produce and the manufacturer his goods quite as much as the purchaser wants to buy. The one who sells and the one who buys are working together in order that the consumer may have a thousand different things that he desires without being obliged to produce them for himself. *In the market, therefore, the buyer and seller are brought together; each helps the other.*

If either buyer or seller controls the other, there is no direct coöperation between them. If the producer is doing business on a large scale and controls the output of the commodities that he produces, we call him a monopolist. *The monopolist and the profiteer are not willing to furnish to the buyer at a reasonable price the articles that the buyer desires.* They take advantage of their place on the team to shift the load on their team mate, the purchaser, because they are able to do it and the purchaser can not protect himself.

Two of the greatest problems of modern society are concerned with lack of fair play among team members.

Nature of a market and co-operation within it.



Gale in "Los Angeles Times"

UNEQUAL DISTRIBUTION OF BURDENS

Unfair prices charged by monopolists and profiteers.

Two kinds of unfair teamwork.

One of these problems deals with the profiteer or monopolist who makes the consumer pay an unreasonable price. The other deals with the *capitalist* who takes advantage of unorganized labor, or with the *highly organized union* that dominates the employer and his shop.

Greater specialization of individuals and better organization of groups.

29. Business Organization of Yesterday and To-day.—The numerous groups upon which we are dependent for goods or services are absolutely necessary to our life to-day. There was a time when each family lived more or less by itself, raising its own food, spinning and weaving its own cloth, and providing itself with most of the other things that it needed. That condition existed in the early seventeenth century colonies; it has no place in twentieth century America. The family that was a jack-of-all-trades has passed the way of the man who was a jack-of-all-trades. The individual has become a specialist, because only in that way can he become skilled in his work, and be able to turn out a large product. In like manner, *groups have become well organized or specialized*. The father of the family is now able to earn a better living by working in a shop, factory, store, or in a transportation system than he would be able to do, with a similar expenditure of time and effort, if he furnished his own tools, bought his own materials, and made many things in his own back yard. In these days of the high cost of living, moreover, he needs the largest income he can earn honestly.

Replacement of old simple methods by others more complex and efficient.

The small simple store has given place to the large complex business house. With the growth of cities, the general store at cross roads has been replaced by the mail order house and the huge department store. Although a large number of families depend upon the corner grocery, more order by telephone from a larger store which delivers in all parts of the city. In former days we placed savings in a woolen stocking or in the

clock on the mantel shelf. In this way the cash was withdrawn from circulation. Nowadays we deposit our money in a savings *bank* or in a commercial bank. This system is an advantage to the bank because the money can be loaned to persons who wish to borrow, and to us because we can do business more easily by drawing checks than by paying cash. Instead of each family's depending upon its own horse and carriage, its members can now make use of *street cars*, with considerable saving of



INTERIOR OF A SAVINGS BANK

both time and expense. At the present time, therefore, people live in large groups or cities, and old, direct methods have given way to others more complicated, but more efficient.

30. Unity of Social Organization.—In order that there may be a society at all, for example, a community or a

Need of unity in the whole society, and of good organization in all member groups.

nation, it is necessary that the society, large or small, should itself be *organized as one group*. Unless it is a unit, it is not one but many societies. The groups of which we have been speaking—the families, the stores, the schools, the transportation systems, the banks—are, from the standpoint of the community or nation, “within groups” or member groups. In spite of, or because of, their very great number, each one of these member groups must be *well organized* in order to carry on its own particular work. It is not properly organized if it does not have leaders, or if it wastes its materials, or if there is friction among its members. In other words, it is poorly organized if it is inefficient.

Unless all of these member groups *work well together*, they are like separate animals and not like the separate organs of a *single* animal. These member groups must work together easily and well, much as the organs of the human body coöperate for the good of the individual. They must not look upon themselves as separate and distinct organizations, but as *member groups* of a large society. In other words, if they are to be organized *to do their own work* they must *coöperate with other groups*, and not be content simply to do well the immediate tasks which are especially their own.

31. Conclusion—The Place of the Individual in Group Organization.—In like manner, the *members* of any “within” group must realize that, if they are to do their work properly, they must coöperate with others of their group as well as work by themselves. We sometimes overlook this simple fact and think that we are conscientious if we “attend to our own knitting.” Sometimes we do not even cultivate a spirit of fellowship. In this we make a great mistake, because there is no work that can be done by itself.

Each group needs leaders. In the high school there

Need of similar coöperation among citizens.

are some students who are much more in the lime-light than others. These think of themselves, and we think of them, as our best school citizens. Possibly they are, possibly not. If they are doing the work that is the most valuable in school, they are superior as school citizens to other students. Otherwise, the well prepared, faithful, conscientious student who is always in the game is as good a school citizen as those who are more prominent. In school and in life, nine times out of ten, the ordinary routine—things little rather than big—makes up the sum total of our obligations. The talents we have may be common talents, but because they are ours is no reason why they may not be the best in the world. No one of us can do the work of anyone else. The most that is required of us is to find our own work, to learn to do it well, and then to do it. Lord Houghton expresses the idea perfectly. "The best things are nearest—breath in your nostrils, light in your eyes, flowers at your feet, duties at your hand, the path of God just before you. Then do not grasp at the stars, but do life's plain common work as it comes, certain that daily duties and daily bread are the sweetest things of life."

The part
to be
played by
leadership
and by
common
endeavor.

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Questions

1. What do you mean by a group? Is it possible to have a group without an organization of the persons forming that group? What characteristics must a true group have?
2. Show how each member of any group is dependent upon other members of the same group. Name a half dozen groups of which you personally are a member.
3. Name at least a dozen groups in this community with which you have dealings. By referring to the making of shoes or of bread, show clearly how "society to-day is woven into a network of inter-relations." Distinguish between the persons with whom we have ordinary indirect relations, like those with the miller, and persons with whom our relationships are even more indirect.
4. Compare individual and public needs. Name two or three types of business needs and show why we require government to care for those needs. Why do we need local governments as well as state and national governments? What departments does each government have and what does each department do?
5. What is a constitution? Why do we need written constitutions? How can we tell whether a constitution is democratic or not?
6. What is a state? How is it different from a nation? What is meant by the noun sovereign? How much authority should a state have, and over what persons and groups must it have this authority?
7. Name three types of work performed by any state through its governments. In a general way, name the limits to the activities performed by a state through its governments.
8. Is there any difference between teamwork and coöperation? Show how teamwork may be carried on in different fields under the supervision of government. Name ways in which government helps us in our daily life.
9. Explain the necessity of teamwork in the home, in the school,

*Primarily for teachers.

and in the shop. What is the effect of friction upon teamwork? What is the effect of individual endeavor?

10. What do you mean by a contract? What is a subcontractor? Why does the set of men working for each contractor form a team? Show how all persons in any particular industry are coöperating with one another. Why is coöperation between capital and labor necessary?

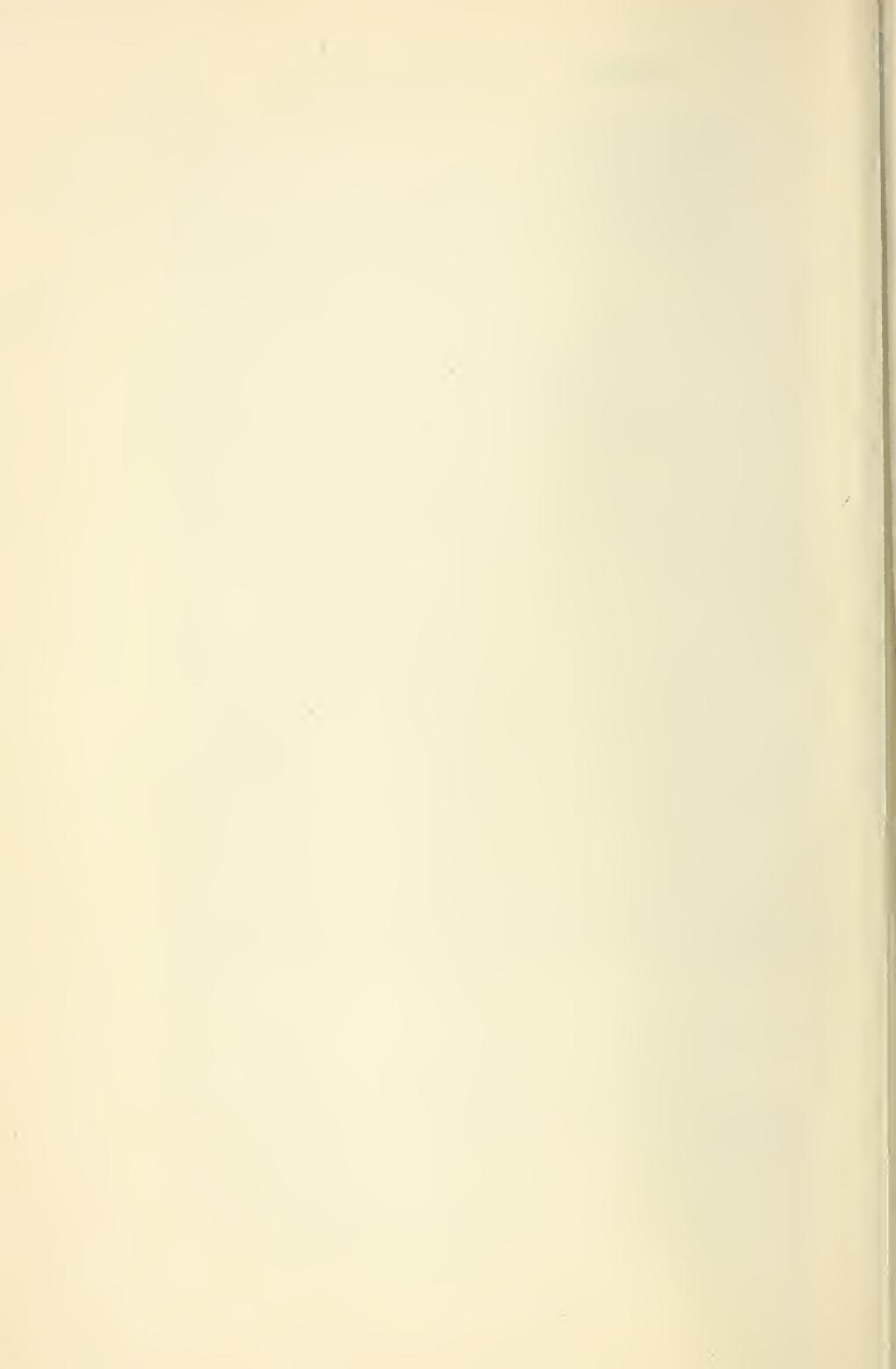
11. What is a market? What is meant by competition? If there is competition in a market between buyer and seller, is the price likely to be fair? Should there be competition between buyer and buyer, in order that they may bid against each other, and between seller and seller, in order that each should try to undersell the other?

12. What is a monopolist? Under what circumstances do we call a producer or a seller a profiteer? Why may a highly organized union that has a true closed shop be just as much of a monopolist as a capitalist who controls the output or production of goods in any one line?

13. Were there specialists in colonial times? Why have most of us become specialists to-day? Why have economic groups become specialized? Is it an advantage to accumulate savings in a bank rather than keep them at home? Explain your answer.

14. Why must a society be organized as one group? What is meant by a "within group" or member group? Why is it necessary for each of these member groups to be well organized (1) to do its own work, (2) to work well with other similar important groups, and (3) to work well with other dissimilar groups and with the whole society?

15. Why is it important that an individual should do his own work thoroughly as well as coöperate with others. If a student is always to be "in the game," how well must he be prepared? What attention must he give to the problem before the class?



PART II
CITIZENSHIP IN THE HOME



CHAPTER III

THE CHILD AND THE YOUTH IN THE HOME

Group organization in relation to the home

1. The child and his relationships
 - a. Pressing but simple needs of the child
 - b. More complex needs of the child
 - c. Attitude of the child toward those who help him
 - d. Boyhood and girlhood
2. The youth in the home
 - a. The beginning of adolescence
 - b. Development of youthful traits
 - c. Problems of conduct for boys and girls
 - d. The obligations of independence
3. The young man or young woman in the home
 - a. The transition period to maturity
 - b. Needs and problems of the young man and woman

32. Group Organization in Relation to the Home.—

Society can not exist unless it is organized in a large number of groups. Upon those groups of which we are members, in which we come face to face with our fellows, we are dependent every day and almost every hour. The group we need most and with which we spend most time, is the family, associated with the home. If we were to ask ourselves what is the importance of the family and the home to us, we should find it impossible to answer the question in a day or even in a month. Yet we should ask ourselves that question in order to understand the place that the family occupies in the lives of its members and therefore in modern society. Because we want food, clothing, shelter, and many comforts, the family is the connecting

Importance
of the
family and
the home
to its
members.

link between ourselves on the one hand and on the other, the great world of business and the complicated society, described in the preceding chapter, which furnishes these goods. In childhood and youth it is especially necessary that we should study the family.

Need of home life for every child.

The family and the home which provides its young people only with material comforts hardly deserves the name of either family or home. Love, watchful consideration, patient forbearance, and other qualities of the true



CHILD WORKERS IN A TENEMENT

parent are as necessary as is the food we eat or the clothes we wear. The child in an orphanage is furnished with practically all of the necessities and some of the comforts which the child has in the home; but he has no home life and misses all those

things which make a home most worth while. He would be willing to exchange many things that he has for the love of a mother or the protecting care of a father, or even for brothers or sisters who are his very own and who share with him, and with him alone, that place which we call home. The relationships, therefore, that we have with parents and with brothers and sisters may not be so numerous as those which the family has with farmer and mechanic and storekeeper; but they come very much nearer making up the sum total of life, if life is to be lived and enjoyed.

THE CHILD AND HIS RELATIONSHIPS

33. Pressing but Simple Needs of the Child.—Anyone who has had experience with children gains the impression that their needs are numerous because they are recurring constantly. As a matter of fact, it is probable that the needs of a child are not so numerous as those of an adult; but, whereas the adult can satisfy his own needs rather easily, the child is usually compelled to depend upon others in order to get what he wants. This is particularly true during the first year of the child's life.¹

The most pressing of all human needs is that for food, because without food and drink we should very soon perish and there would be no further human needs. The adult provides himself with food,² clothing, and shelter, but the child can secure these necessities only with the help of his parents. The child both needs and wants other things; among these are toys, some form of entertainment, and companionship.

34. More Complex Needs of the Child.—Civilization demands that *the child shall be trained in the way that the race thinks necessary*. In the early years of his life, there are numerous admonitions—"don'ts"—because he must be taught to avoid those things which society believes are not desirable. If he is rightly trained, his bringing-up includes advice regarding what conduct is best as well as constant suggestions on the right way in which to do the things that he wants to accomplish and the things that society demands of him.

As the child grows older, he depends less and less upon others. Little by little he learns to help himself. His desire to be like older boys or like his father has a whole-

Satisfaction
of needs of
a little
child.

Necessities
and com-
forts
needed by
the child.

How the
child is
compelled
to conform
to race re-
quirements.

The grow-
ing-up
process.

¹ Although the needs of the infant are different from those of an older child or a youth, they are of such character that they can usually be satisfied by one or two persons; the chief burden of supplying them falls upon the mother.

²The adult produces wealth which he changes for food.

some influence in arousing his ambition and in helping him to grow up. After he reaches what might be called the third stage of childhood, the age of the early primary grades, he feels a desire to explore new fields and to form new friendships.



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TEACHING CHILDREN USEFUL HABITS

Need of
parental
authority.

35. Attitude of the Child Toward Those Who Help Him.—If the child's parents or friends provide him with food, clothing, shelter, toys, or other necessities and comforts, and if they are to help him avoid danger or learn new ways of doing things in a better manner, it stands to reason that they must have *authority* to do these things for him. Because a child is so completely dependent upon his parents, he is in no position to accept or refuse the help which they alone can give. He must rely upon the judgment, generosity, and ability of those who aid him, and their authority must be to a considerable extent unquestioned.

As the child grows, he ought to begin to *make some return* for the care and help that he is receiving constantly. He can show the right spirit toward the person who is trying to aid him, and obey practically without question.

Ways in which the child can help.



A LITTLE MOTHER CARING FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

He can make as light as possible the heavy burdens which are usually placed upon the mother in the family. Most children help willingly and unconsciously, because human nature does not like one-sided relationships; it wishes to replace them as soon as possible with something more fair and two-sided.

36. Boyhood and Girlhood.—The period from eight to twelve is usually called boyhood and girlhood. During these years the body and the mind do not grow as rapidly as they have before, or change as much as they will in the following period. It is a time which can and should be used wisely in the classroom for memorizing passages and acquiring information that will be of value in all the

Opportunities and problems of the period of boyhood.

years to come. Boyhood, however, is a period of surplus energy and of new initiative. The boy wants to do something different from what he has done in the past. On the one hand, he has broken away from childish ways of looking at things, and is often dissatisfied with the old standards of conduct; on the other hand, he has not always developed many new ideals of what is right or what is wrong. He may not yet have learned what fair play is. It may, therefore, be necessary to use with him warnings and punishments different from those which deterred him in childhood.

Need of developing habits of consideration.

It is also necessary that he should respect authority and interfere as little as possible with the rights, privileges, and property of others. Being himself rather callous to the rough and tumble treatment of his playfellows, he is far less considerate of others than he was as a child and than he will be as a man. If he has not been taught to be kind to dumb animals, that is, unless kindness has become a habit which he can not easily break, he may take particular delight in teasing, tormenting, or even torturing domestic pets. It is quite essential, therefore, that kind treatment of others, animals or human beings, should have become second nature.

THE YOUTH IN THE HOME

Some changes of this period of transition.

37. The Beginning of Adolescence.—The period of the “teens” is called adolescence; it is undoubtedly the most important transition stage in the life of any individual. The youth is no longer a child. Usually he has passed out of the “boyhood” period of his existence. In this transition stage from boyhood and girlhood dependence to adult independence the boy and the girl encounter new problems.¹ Many old methods which

¹The importance of adolescence and its problems is shown by the difficulty of considering the boy and the girl at the same time. In these sections, however, the masculine pronoun is used almost exclusively, although the treatment usually includes girls as well as boys.

were satisfactory in childhood and fairly usable in boyhood are constantly being discarded; they satisfied the needs of earlier years but not those of youth. New relationships and adjustments are continually being developed, for the brain is becoming capable of understanding more difficult relationships and problems.

38. Development of Youthful Traits.—Unless a youth is unusually conceited, he is almost as much interested in others with whom he comes in contact and in his environment, as he is in himself. This is due partly to the fact that he thinks of others as well as of himself. When he was a *child*, he was frank and direct, speaking or acting largely upon impulse. The *youth* thinks more as well as feels more, and he usually thinks before he acts. “I did not think” is the excuse of those who are mentally immature. When we grow up, we stop to think. If a youth becomes angry, he controls his emotions because of regard for the feelings of others, or at least because he wishes to retain the friendship and respect of those who would like him less if he continually lost his temper. His self-respect and his respect for others are growing. Both are necessary if the boy is to make a man of himself.

His new attitude toward life and his new regard for others and for their opinions lead to *new ambitions*. Instead of doing things for the enjoyment of the moment, the youth is likely to look ahead, plan for the future, and work out fine schemes of what he will do. In many boys *there is developed a new resourcefulness, aggressiveness, and masterfulness which makes for leadership*. We are inclined to laugh at the lad who is ambitious to overturn or reform the world, yet the youth who does not have such desires is lacking in those qualities which in the later, soberer years will make the boy a noble man, just as somewhat similar desires will make

Attitude
of youth
toward
others.

New qual-
ities of
growing
and
expanding
youth.

the girl a worthy woman. Youth would not be youth if it did not see more worlds to conquer.

39. Problems of Conduct for Boys and Girls.—It can easily be seen that the problems of the youth are different from those of the child. A boy wants to be a man, but he does not know how; he therefore apes only the more crude and vulgar habits of the adult. As he wishes to be considered independent, he ought to try to satisfy his own wants before he calls upon others. A youth should be old enough to earn a little pocket money instead of asking his father for cash or depending upon the generosity of his mother. If his careless ways cause extra work in the household, possibly he can mend some of them. As the years pass, he should assume a constantly larger share of responsibilities in the home.

In adolescence the boy does not change more than does the girl. She can be a joy or a burden to all with whom she is associated. She naturally wants as many fine things about her as she can get, but at least she should watch her little extravagances and possibly make for herself many of the niceties and comforts in which she delights. When the hasty or thoughtless word rises to her lips, she ought to stop and consider whether, in fairness to herself, it should be spoken.

The ordinary girl of thirteen is more mature than the boy of the same age. At fifteen or sixteen, however, it is probable that she has not gone as far afield in work, play, and other interests as has her brother. In consequence, she may not have a boy's desire for fair play, yet she must prepare herself for a place in the world within which her relationships to other adults will be two-sided. *What she needs is a balanced spirit of independence*, not an independent spirit which demands that she be allowed to do as she wishes, especially if at the same time she neglects the simple household tasks in which her

Some results of changes in a boy's viewpoint.

Possible thoughtfulness and economies of the girl.

The girl's problem of finding and filling her own place.

mother needs help, and continually asks her father for money to be used in needless expenditures. Not dependence or independence but *interdependence* should be her motto.

40. The Obligations of Independence.—Can not every youth of fifteen strike his own balance? Might it not be possible for him to make an inventory of what the home gives and what it receives? Every young person ought to decide whether his family is not doing very much more than it gets in return and whether the boy or girl is really outgrowing dependence and is becoming a man or a woman. This question arises: to how much independence is a boy or girl entitled who does little for those with whom he or she is associated? How can a boy be independent, manly, square, and useful without granting the same opportunities and rights to others? If he demands independence for himself, surely he would not expect others to have less. That would be neither manly nor square. But if this independence is the right to do as he pleases, injuring those who are weaker than he and disregarding the rights of others, he can become independent only through sacrificing the independence of others. In that case "might makes right," and independence is a possession only of the strong and brutal; of the prize fighter, not the gentleman; of the bully, not the man. Independence involves a claim to those rights only which are conceded to others. The finer, the squarer, the more manly the boy, the more clearly he recognizes the obligations as well as the rights of independence. In the days of chivalry there was a phrase which expressed this thought, "*noblesse oblige*," that is, people of the nobility must do more than ordinary folk. So to-day the nobility of manhood, not of birth, makes regard for others the very essence of manliness and good citizenship.

Qualities
which the
independ-
ent youth
must seek
to develop.

THE YOUNG MAN OR YOUNG WOMAN IN THE HOME

Contrast
between
past and
present.

41. The Transition Period to Maturity.—A great deal of space might easily and well be given to the young man or young woman of eighteen or twenty in the home or in relation to his or her associates. In these studies we are not directly concerned with the older youth, intensely interesting and complicated as are the problems of those young people on the threshold of manhood or womanhood. A century ago a young man or young woman of twenty was expected to be grown-up and ready to assume practically all obligations of an adult. Nowadays we live longer and we take a longer time for life preparation. If the world is going forward, the men and women of each generation ought to know more and accomplish more than their parents, and the longer period of training should at least teach them to live better as well as to make a better living.

The self-
supporting
young man
or woman
of eighteen.

In the homes where no life preparation can be given beyond the age of eighteen, the young man or young woman is likely to be earning an independent income and therefore to be financially self-supporting. Such a person, in fact, may be living away from home under an environment entirely different from that of childhood and youth. Although such a young man or woman has fewer responsibilities than the average adult, nevertheless, in relationships to society in general, there is probably a fair balance between that which is given and that which is received.

Contrast
between
personal
independ-
ence and
dependence
on home.

42. Needs and Problems of the Young Man and Woman.—The boy or girl of eighteen who is expecting to go through college, and therefore looks forward to several additional years of preparation for life and life work, is ordinarily in a state of semidependency upon the home, at least from the financial point of view. The young

college student should assume responsibilities, not only for his own conduct and self-direction, but for some home duties which could not well be assumed by him when he was younger. How often one sees in the college youth a state of dependency hardly removed from that of childhood, yet coupled with an independence which is churlish and blatant. Only the most sage or experienced of counsellors would hope to give to such a sophomore young man advice upon any problem in the least personal in its nature. Notwithstanding the fact that the final transition to manhood and womanhood is one of the most difficult of all periods in the life of any individual, the wishes of his parents may count for little and the experience of age may be a warning rather than a guide to such a sophisticated youth. The fault for such an unfortunate state of affairs lies undoubtedly with the home and the parents almost as much as it does with the young man. Parents who have not had the confidence of their children as children and as adolescents can hardly hope to enjoy the confidence of a grown-up son or daughter.

During these interesting years how charming but unfortunately how rare is the true companionship of mother and daughter or of father and son! The young man or woman has the right to expect that his parents will try to understand his wishes, share in his interests and pastimes, and help him comprehend and face his problems squarely. If they do that, he is likely to respond in kind and bring to them his ambitions and problems, which he may be glad to discuss fully and carefully. He is likely to ask his youthful friends to visit him in order that they may know and appreciate his best friends of all—his father and his mother. Theodore Roosevelt was one of the greatest of presidents, but his letters to his children show that as a man and as a father he would have been great if he had

Possible
value of
home to a
young man
or a young
woman.

never held public office. Certainly the home which has given its best to a young man and a young woman, and given wisely, may claim in return not only their fellowship and companionship, but also their thought, interest, and endeavor. Even when the young people leave to make places for themselves in business or to establish homes of their own, they will be so much a part of the old home that their places will never be filled.

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Primarily for teachers.

Questions

1. Name several things that the home does for the child. Give several types of needs that the little child has.
2. Upon whom does the child depend (*a*) for food, clothing, and shelter; (*b*) for toys and other amusements; (*c*) for companionship? What does the child do in return?
3. What is done by a child and by others regarding the following:
 - (*a*) Keeping his hands and face clean, keeping his clothes mended and tidy.
 - (*b*) The treatment of dumb animals, the care of his own possessions; the treatment of other people's things as his own.
 - (*c*) Telling the truth, fairness to his playmates, courtesy to his elders.
4. Decide to what extent the youth (*a*) has outgrown the one-sided relations of childhood, and (*b*) is entitled to consideration as a person who gives as much as he gets. Mention a few things that he or she ought to do in order to be really grown up and have two-sided relationships. To what extent are many boys and girls still children in the sense of shirking responsibilities?
5. If a young man is dependent upon his parents for food, shelter, and most, if not all, of his clothing, and on the home for many comforts and opportunities, how can he prove that he is grown up? What responsibilities ought he to assume about the home?

CHAPTER IV

HOME PROBLEMS

1. The American home and its permanence
 - a. The family as the sole social unit
 - b. Society and marriage laws
 - c. The individual American and marriage
 - d. Divorce
 - (1) Changing conditions and divorce
 - (2) Remedies for the divorce evil
2. The household as an economic unit
 - a. Number and size of American families
 - b. Family income
 - c. Family expenditure and the high cost of living

Conclusion

The American home, past, present, and future

THE AMERICAN HOME AND ITS PERMANENCE

Economic
and social
importance
of the
family.

43. The Family as the Sole Social Unit.—The history of civilized society in ancient, in medieval, and in modern times is a history of societies made up of families. Cities are necessary for carrying on business and securing the maximum of profit and enjoyment of life; states (commonwealths) are important for the making of laws, the preservation of order, and the protection of rights; nations are essential to organize large societies for their government, for their protection against foreign enemies, and for their development; but none of these is so important as the family. This is the basis of society to-day as in the past and it is the only distinctively social unit in the modern world. Because it is so important, all nations

should safeguard family life in every way possible, and develop the family as a social institution.

Humanity has created a great civilization. Each generation must add something of value. The children of to-day, if born into good homes, will carry on the work of past ages, making the next half century greater than this half, as this half is greater than the late nineteenth century. We must have strong, healthy children, cared for by loving, wise parents, and trained for life and citizenship. Society may protect the child from dangers, but it is the home which must make him a useful citizen.

44. Society and Marriage Laws.—In all ages the character of the home has been influenced greatly by the marriage customs and laws of the people.¹ In all ages marriage has been regulated by custom as well as by law. In fact, our laws usually do little more than state what the custom is. The fact that marriage is regulated in this way shows that it is a *permanent social institution*, recognized and accepted by the whole society. Since the family is the sole social unit of any nation, that nation or society must be vitally interested in, and affected by, its chief social institution.

In making laws regarding marriage, society has been content to tell what should not be done rather than to describe what must be undertaken or observed. Children are not allowed to marry, nor is a person who has been wed permitted to marry again so long as he is legally married. Marriage ceremonies are always required and usually marriage licenses are demanded.

45. The Individual American and Marriage.—Among some peoples custom has decided rather definitely whom

How humanity's progress depends upon good homes.

Why society is vitally interested in marriage laws.

Ordinary require-ments for marriage.

¹ Among some primitive peoples polygamy was practiced, one man having several wives. The half brothers and sisters had toward one another less interest than have American children of the same family group. Among civilized people monogamy has probably always been more common than polygamy even where polygamy was permitted.

American freedom in selecting a mate contrasted with usages in other countries.

a young man may marry and whom he may not marry. In many other countries the selection of a husband or wife is settled by the parents of the bride or groom. In America, society does not prescribe by law how a life companion shall be selected, nor does custom allow the family invariably to decide this momentous question. In America far more than in any other country a young man or a young woman has almost unrestricted choice of a mate. It is especially necessary, therefore, that, for their own welfare and that of society, the choice shall be wise.

If the home neglects its duty of preparing young people for life in homes of their own, the school must necessarily take up part of the burden. In a nation in which more than nine tenths of the housewives do their own work, the school can give the girls at least a rudimentary training in the care of a home. It can prepare the boys to be better bread-winners. It can show the folly of hasty or too early marriages, the disadvantages of marriages delayed until middle age, and the objection to establishing a home on an inadequate income. It can emphasize the risk of marrying someone of radically different age or character or one accustomed to a totally different standard of living. It can point out the dangers of marrying for a home without love, of neglecting the question of health, and of disregarding the accumulated wisdom of parents, friends, and society.

46. Changing Conditions and Divorce.—In ancient times men had the right to divorce their wives; but wives seldom had the right to secure divorces from their husbands. In Europe, during the Middle Ages and in early modern times, divorce was practically unknown because the Christian churches objected to it. During the colonial period and for a long time after we became a nation, divorcees were seldom granted in America. In recent years divorce has increased greatly in the United

What the school can do or must do in preparing youths for home life in the future.

Absence of divorce before recent times.

States.¹ Divorce is an especially serious evil to society when it leads to the destruction of the home and the separation of children from either parent.

A hundred years ago most people lived in the country or in very small villages. The members of the home were greatly dependent upon one another and the family was a unit. To-day more than half of the people live in cities. Most families do not own separate dwellings, and it is not so easy as it was in the olden days for young people really to know each other.

The development of modern industry has affected the home. Store, shop, and factory offer an income, and women are, therefore, economically more independent than they could have been in the past. Clubs and movies offer distractions which in many cases interfere with home interests and home life.

Formerly women had few rights and privileges. To-day most states allow married women to own separate property, and legally a woman has practically as much control over her home and her children as her husband. Women now may vote on exactly the same terms as men. As woman has become "independent" she no longer need depend upon marriage, but, if she prefers, may find a life worth living outside of a home of her own.

47. Remedies for the Divorce Evil.—As the increase of divorce has been due to social causes rather than to laws relating to divorce, *remedies would naturally be sought in the causes which give rise to divorce.*² Most

The changing home as a cause of divorce.

Business and social distractions.

Political and legal independence.

Past attempts to cure the divorce evil through laws.

¹ From 1867 to 1886 the divorces in the United States numbered 328,716. From 1887 to 1906 the number increased to 900,534. In 1870 there were 29 divorces annually to every 100,000 inhabitants. By 1880 the number had risen to 38 to every 100,000, in 1890 to 53, in 1900 to 73, in 1906 to 86, and in 1916 to 112. Such an increase shows an appalling and dangerous unrest. In the United States the present rate of divorce is more than twice as high as in any other civilized country. There is an average of one divorce to every nine marriages.

² Most of the social and economic causes which lead to divorce are not easily controlled because they are connected with important social movements which are continuing.

attempts to solve the divorce problem, however, have dealt chiefly with laws. Many people believe that the trouble is not due to poor laws, but to the fact that divorcees are granted too readily under the laws.

Practical measures to reduce divorce.

To reduce the number of divorcees *better marriage laws* are needed, e. g., laws which make it impossible for mental and physical defectives to marry. The universal use of licenses and a longer period of waiting before licenses are granted are two of the legal safeguards which might reduce the number of unsatisfactory marriages. Something can be done by more education on the subject of the home and the importance of marriage, still more by special care in the selection of mates and a greater realization of the place filled by the home and the family in our civilization to-day. Courts of domestic relations, which seek to reconcile dissatisfied husbands and wives, careful investigation of cases by judges, and more stringent regulations to prevent remarriage after divorce are among means used to maintain the permanence of the home and the family.

THE HOUSEHOLD AS AN ECONOMIC UNIT

Advantage of large families in colonial times.

48. Number and Size of American Families.—In colonial times, since labor was scarce, the more children there were, the more workers were provided. Large families were an advantage; six or eight children were the rule. Because land was abundant, living was plain, and luxuries were not to be expected, the boys and girls earned their own way by the time they were thirteen.

Disadvantages of large families of working-men to-day.

In the United States at the present time, there are more than twenty million families. The normal American family to-day consists of five members, the average number of children being three. Land is no longer plentiful, and labor is no longer scarce. Young people

do not expect to earn their own living until they are fifteen, twenty, or even twenty-five. Comforts and luxuries are demanded by all. For the average family a large number of children means a lower standard of living. "In 1903 the United States Commissioner of Labor reported on 11,156 families of workingmen. In the families with one child, the average [annual] income per



POOR HOME SURROUNDINGS IN A TENEMENT DISTRICT

person was \$212.76; in the families with three children, the average was \$133.18; while in the families with five children, the average income per person was \$94.97."¹ Yet it is among the workingmen rather than in wealthier homes that large families are found.

49. Family Income.—Most of the money of the family is earned by the father or the head of the family. It is impossible to obtain exact figures, and in any case the figures change from year to year; but it is probable that

Incomes of fathers and of families.

¹ Nearing, *Social Adjustment*, p. 151.

the average unskilled or partially skilled wage-earner earns only about \$1250 a year. Others in his family usually contribute something additional. *The average family income of the poorest seventy-five per cent of American families is probably in the neighborhood of \$1600 a year¹.* This would give an income of at least



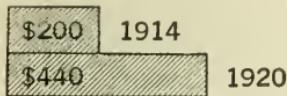
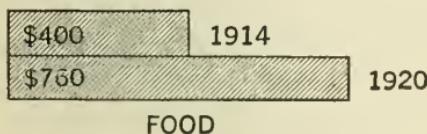
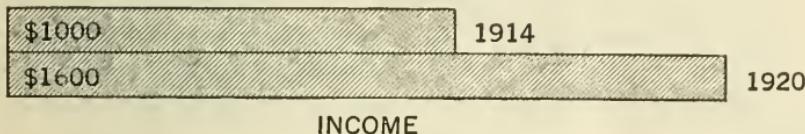
THE SHACK OF A POOR NEGRO FAMILY

\$300 for each member, if the families were not larger than the average. If, however, the addition to the father's income is made by the mother of small children, at work which takes her much of the time from the home, it represents a social loss or cost which is far greater than the sum earned by her.

¹ Even these incomes are large compared with those of the peasant or artisan of Europe. In Prussia twenty years ago it is estimated that four-fifths of the families supported life on less than \$400 a year and that ninety-four per cent lived on less than \$750 annually.

Averages are, of course, misleading;¹ more than one-third of these families do not receive as much as a thousand dollars a year. Many of them, however, are colored families living in shacks in country districts of the South, where the cost of living is low.

Low incomes of the very poor.



CLOTHING
COST OF SAME FAMILY NECESSITIES 1914 AND 1920 .



OTHER EXPENSES
COST OF LIVING, 1914 AND 1920

What would have happened if the ordinary family had purchased as much food and clothing in 1920 as in 1914. (The dollar of 1920 was worth about 40 cents of the dollar of 1914.)

50. Family Expenditure and the High Cost of Living.
—In recent years we have heard a great deal about the high cost of living. Prices have risen more rapidly than wages. Ten years ago the ordinary family was earning

Why the standards of living have fallen in most families.

¹The national income tax returns for 1918 show that there were sixty-seven persons in the United States whose net income amounted to more than a million dollars for that year. Nearly three thousand persons had incomes from one hundred thousand to one million dollars, and the number of persons with net incomes from two thousand to five thousand was nearly two million and a half.

enough to give itself a fair supply of food, clothing that was good if not stylish, and a house that was comfortable. At the present time, comparatively few of those families have incomes that will give them the same number of necessities, comforts, or luxuries. In the homes of older people who are dependent upon the income from funds that have been saved, there has probably been no increase of income whatever. Because of these changes, the standard of living of most families has gone down during the last ten years.

Proportion
of income
used for
different
necessities
and for
comforts.

Incomes are to be measured less in dollars than in the goods and services which those dollars will purchase. After all, it is not so much the *amount* of the income as the *actual use* of the income which decides the family standard of living. If families of workingmen are obliged to spend forty-five per cent for food, fifteen to twenty per cent for shelter and fifteen to twenty per cent for clothing, they will probably have only twenty per cent for all other comforts and for luxuries. What is saved must be saved out of that small possible surplus, certainly at great sacrifice. The larger the family, the smaller the remainder for comforts, and the less the chance of laying by a little for a rainy day.

Specific
cases of
waste in
using food
or clothing.

Considering the fact that most families have little money for comforts, we are surprised to learn that, with knowledge, skill, and care, one-quarter of the total sum spent for food and clothing might be saved. *Waste* occurs in the buying of food in small quantities, in the purchase of foods of little nutritive value, and in the cooking and serving. There is even greater waste in the purchase of clothing. Our schools should teach not only boys and girls but also parents how to secure greater values for their money.

Many mothers display wonderful skill in making family purchases. All mothers should receive the train-

ing which might make \$650, the average spent by more than half of our families for food to-day, go as far as \$800 does at present. Would not society be far more than repaid for the cost, if women were trained in scientific household management? Considering the number of under-fed and half-starved children and adults in the United States, society is guilty of almost criminal failure, because it does not give better preparation for the use of wealth.

Why family economy should be furthered by education.

51. Conclusion—The American Home, Past, Present, and Future.—*In colonial times*, farming was the chief occupation. The farms were large and provided the families with practically all the things that they needed and with most of the comforts that they wanted. In this home the father was the ruler, for his word was law. His wife was subject to his authority, and, according to the well-known phrase, "children were seen but not heard."

Characteristics of the colonial home.

How different is *the home of to-day!* It is unlike the separate, sheltered home of two centuries ago, just as the life of the boy and of the girl is different from the sheltered, protected life of the little child; and the reasons for both are the same. The boy and the girl are growing up and are living in a new, a different, and a wider environment than that in which the child lived. The typical modern home is not isolated on a farm, but is in the midst of a bustling city, and may occupy but a small part of a huge tenement. In consequence, it is in close contact with numerous live city interests which make it different than the old home. Just as the boy and girl must change in order to fit into the ever-expanding life of the youth, so the new home must adapt itself to the changing conditions that exist to-day.

Development of the home to-day.

The home of the future will not be like that of the present or like that of the past. The children of the present often are lacking in respect and consideration. Unless they are properly trained, there is every reason to

How we can help make the home of the future a better home.

expect that the children of the future will be even more disrespectful and inconsiderate than they are now. The present home will not grow into a better one simply by being left alone. No gardener who wishes to have a fine orchard allows his trees to grow without pruning, cultivation, and other care. Every member of the family must be interested in the home and must work to see that the home of the future is better than the one of the past and the one of the present. In order to achieve this end, it will be necessary to *study principles and problems* connected with such subjects as these: the relation of husband to wife, including the subjects of marriage and divorce; the relation of parent to child, including such topics as obedience, consideration, and the protection of children; and the relation of children to each other. We must study the financial problem, always a pressing one in the majority of homes. We must know more about citizenship in the home, in the school, and in the community, for they are alike in most respects. We do not need to wait, therefore, until we have homes of our own to help make the home of the future a better institution than the one of the past.

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Questions

1. Explain what is meant by the statement that the family is "the only distinctively social unit in the modern world." Show three or four ways in which the family and good homes are indispensable to a great civilization.

2. What is the meaning of the expression that marriage is "a permanent social institution?" In the marriage practices of any people, what part is played by custom? Why are most marriage requirements put in a negative form?

3. In the selection of a husband or wife, compare the usage of other countries with our own. Give some idea of what the school should do in preparing its boys and girls for homes of their own.

4. Contrast the family life of the past with that of the present. Show how permanent marriages usually resulted from the home life of the past. Explain why the home life of the city produces many divorces.

5. What occupations or interests did women have a century ago? What economic experiences and advantages do women have to-day? (See §§171-172.) What is the effect upon marriage of the fact that many young women become wage-earners as soon as they leave school?

6. In what respects has there been an increase in the privileges and rights of women, and especially married women, during the last three-quarters of a century? (Distinguish between legal, political,

*Primarily for teachers.

and social rights.) What has been the effect of "woman's independence" on the home?

7. Give some idea of the divorce laws at present in this state. Why was a national divorce law desired a third of a century ago? Is it possible for a man to secure a divorce in a different state from that in which he resides? In the prevention of divorce, what is the importance of each of the following: marriage laws, divorce laws, lenient or strict administration of those laws, public sentiment? Name at least three ways in which real reform in divorce might be secured.

8. Show that every household is an economic unit from the standpoint of spending money and to a considerable extent from the standpoint of earning it. What is the average family income for at least two thirds, and possibly three fourths, of all American families?

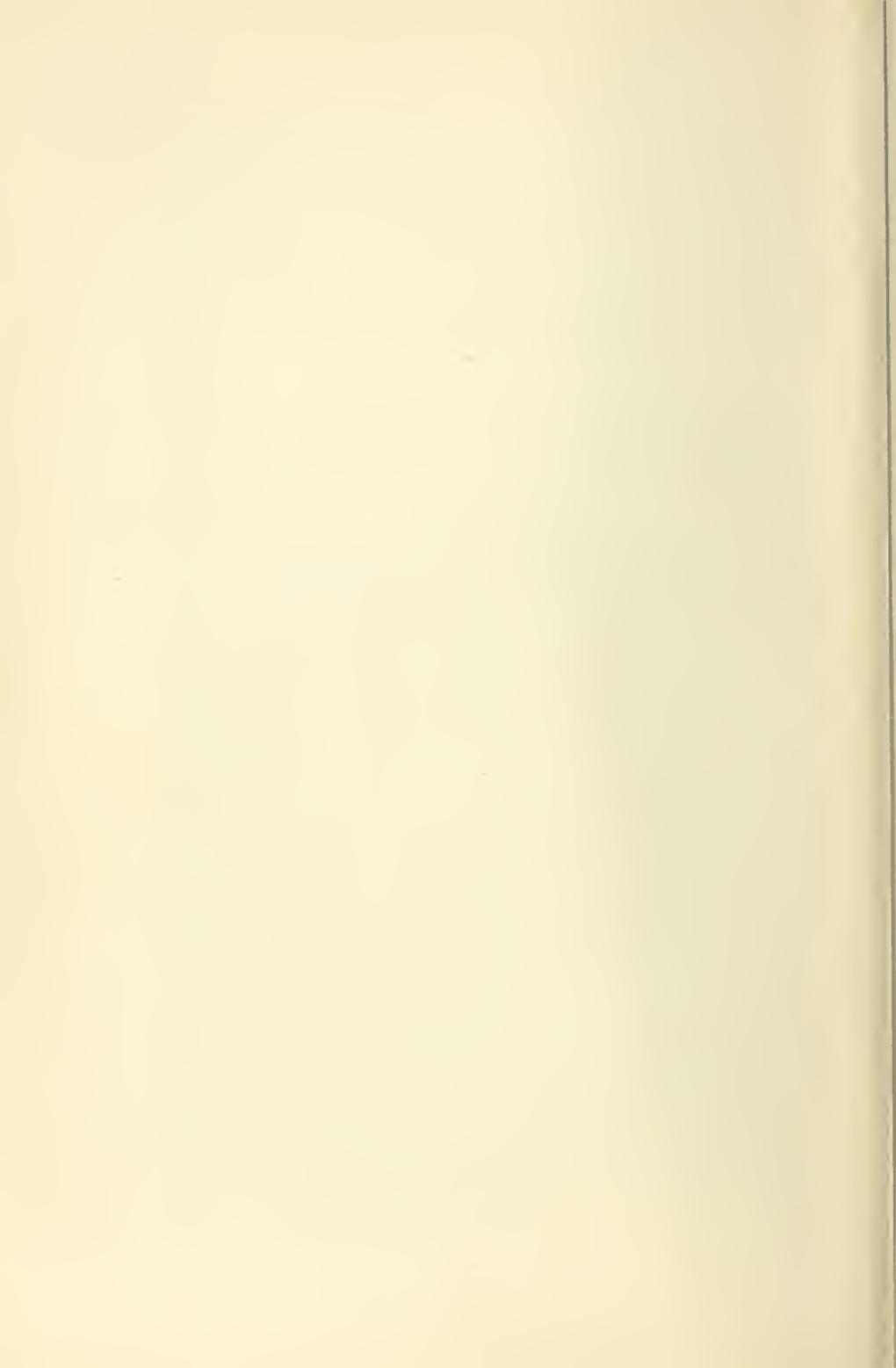
9. Compare the rise of prices during recent years with the increase of wages. Why have the changes been a disadvantage rather than a help to the ordinary American family? What percentage of the income of the families that are poor, or in rather moderate circumstances, can be spent for comforts and luxuries? If luxuries are purchased, what is the effect upon the standard of living of those families? If there is considerable waste in purchasing food, in preparing it, and in serving it, why do most Americans strive for larger incomes rather than depend upon education and thrift to improve their condition? Is money ever spent unnecessarily by girls and boys for articles of clothing? How can family expenditures due to wastes be reduced most easily and most successfully?

10. To what extent are low standards of living due to small incomes rather than to extravagance and wastefulness? How will education affect (a) capacity to earn a large income and (b) ability to make better use of money? In recent years to what extent has the high cost of living been due to the cost of high living?

11. In what respects is the home of the present a better or a poorer institution than the home of the past? Is the future home likely to be a less successful institution than the present one? Why should boys and girls make a special effort (a) to develop character as a means of improving home life, (b) to study the dangers threatening home life at present, and (c) to try to learn what can be done to make the home of the future a better one?

12. Now that woman has many new social and political activities, is she a less capable home maker?

PART III
CITIZENSHIP IN THE SCHOOL



CHAPTER V

PLAYGROUNDS AND SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

What is school citizenship?

1. The playground
 - a. General problems of the high school playground
 - b. Grammar school play activities
 - c. Opportunity for leadership and teamwork
2. School and classroom
 - a. The grammar school classroom
 - b. The junior high school
 - c. General school regulations
 - (1) High school courses of study
 - (2) Classroom groups
 - (3) Promptness and regularity
 - (4) Relation of teacher to pupil

52. What is School Citizenship?—It is possible to speak of school citizenship because the student in a class or school has relationships which carry rights and obligations similar to those which he has as a citizen of the American nation. The field is a narrower one, but the general character of the rights and obligations resembles that of a larger citizenship. In fact, *the principles underlying school citizenship are identical with those upon which national citizenship is based.* If a boy or girl studies the principles of school citizenship, and learns what he owes to his fellows and what he should receive from them, he has a good idea of the rights and obligations possessed by an adult as a citizen of this nation of ours. In school the youth can not only study but can also exercise these rights and duties. He will understand the nature of citizenship if he studies the principles of civic organi-

General
nature of
school
citizenship.

zation, practices his civic rights and obligations, and, in addition, makes actual use of his civic opportunities. Sometimes we have the idea that civic rights and duties are things apart from our ordinary work. But in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, civic rights are merely privileges and opportunities that we enjoy, and civic duties are little more than tasks that we perform as members of the groups to which we belong.

School citizenship is largely a matter of well learned lessons, of punctual attendance, of concentrated study, of close attention in class. It is not, therefore, chiefly a thing of student government, or of Friday afternoon exercises, or of special ceremonies and celebrations. Nevertheless, there are certain phases of group action within the school or associated with the school that we should study carefully from the civic point of view. Some of these are treated in the following topics.

THE PLAYGROUND

Why the
high school
playgrounds
are less
important
than those
of the
grades.

53. General Problems of the High School Playground. —In the high school and junior high school, the playground is important; but, for a number of reasons, it is not so important as it is in the grammar school proper. In the high school there are generally no recess periods, and the noon hour is usually a lunch period rather than a play time. Therefore, there is very much less play activity at the high school than on the grounds of a grammar and primary school. The high school grounds, however, present important questions and problems; for they give excellent opportunity for students to develop democracy.

Where lunch is eaten out-of-doors, there are numerous problems connected with serving it and with providing places for eating food brought from home. Opportunities for good citizenship are offered in keeping the grounds neat and tidy. The slogan "dirt makes work" has

Many
opportuni-
ties for
good
citizenship.

deterred students from carelessly scattering papers and refuse. By showing a spirit of helpfulness, students can aid others in the school. By saving the food that is not consumed, they can help needy children of their community.



MAY DAY CELEBRATION OF SCHOOL STUDENTS

54. Grammar School Play Activities.—In the grammar schools, play activities are usually carefully supervised by the teachers. At least there is separation of girls from boys, and possibly of the larger boys from the smaller boys. Since girls have different play interests from boys, and since the small boys can not play well with the larger fellows, it is desirable that each group should be as much as possible by itself.

Although teachers are ordinarily in charge of playgrounds and of the play activities of primary and grammar school children, nevertheless, teachers do not interfere unless their intervention is absolutely necessary. Usually only a few rules are enforced. If a fight occurs or some larger boy abuses one of his smaller playmates, a teacher

Need of
separation
by sex and
age.

Playground
rules and
supervision.

naturally protests. In no other place connected with the school is the same freedom allowed to children as they enjoy on the school grounds. Except in very large cities, pupils have opportunity to run and shout and otherwise to work off their surplus energy. On the playgrounds they should learn much and develop rapidly.

Selection
of right
leaders
and sup-
pression of
bullies.

55. Opportunity for Leadership and Teamwork.—On the playground, the children usually select their own games, work out the rules under which these games shall be played, and decide who shall be allowed to share in any game. *Leaders* are not chosen by the teacher because they are teacher's pets or excellent scholars, but by the students because they are good fellows, full of suggestions and really capable of leadership. In most schools, there are some bullies who have very little regard for the rights and desires of others. Ordinarily, however, these bullies can be easily managed by a group of public-spirited boys who organize and protest against their domineering methods. The playground thus gives opportunity for voluntary organization, for leadership, for self-direction, and for play activity.

Social
value of
school
playground
activities.

The spirit of the game is the spirit of coöperation, since games include many players. In a true sense, the ideal of the playground is fair play. The playground is *democratic*, if no cliques are formed and if all are allowed to take part in games for which they are fitted by age, spirit, temperament, and ability. The grounds are really controlled by the pupils. A person who loses his temper may be forced to play by himself or may actually be punished for his outburst. If a boy is unsocial or is anti-social, he may find that he is as lonely as the feline that Kipling so well characterized in one of the *Just So Stories*, "The Cat that Walked by Himself." The ordinary boy easily learns to give and take, not in the spirit of the drawing-room, but in a practical out-of-door

way which develops good sense and firmness of character, if not fine discrimination. Play activities are an exceedingly valuable means of teaching boys and girls how to work together, how to organize small groups, and how to manage their own affairs in a democratic manner.

SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM

56. The Grammar School Classroom.—In a grammar school a class usually consists of boys and girls, and the number is rarely less than twenty or more than fifty. A school grade is supposed to be a homogeneous group of pupils who are studying the same subjects. A class is not really homogeneous if the students are divided into an advanced class and a less advanced class. As these boys and girls are brought together chiefly because they live in the same neighborhood, and as school districts do not give attention to neighborhood boundaries,¹ there may be a great difference between the more intelligent and the more ignorant pupils, between those that have had good home training and those that have not, and between pupils who want to learn and pupils who look upon school as a necessary evil.

Why the classroom group is not usually a unit.

Satisfactory training in citizenship for grammar grade pupils presents a complicated problem. In the first place, very few cities offer a continuous course in civics or citizenship. Even if there is a course of that character, it is difficult to secure for consecutive years teachers who use the same methods and put stress upon the same things. Second, the students, therefore, do not get continuous training, year after year, in the same kind of citizenship. In a school that has departmental work in the upper grammar grades, it may be possible to get satisfactory training in citizenship, although it is not easy to do so. A third factor of the problem, and the most important of

The problem of continuous and successful training in citizenship.

¹See § 298

all, is the pupil. The pupils of the grammar grades are necessarily young. Some of them are much less mature than others in their mental development, interest in citizenship, ability to do the right thing, and willingness to accept responsibility for their conduct. Even under the best training in citizenship, undertaken with excellent teachers, few grammar school classes can be made responsible for their own conduct, even for one period during which the teacher may be absent.

57. The Junior High School.—In some cities there are to be found, at the present time, junior high schools. These schools begin their work with the seventh grade, taking charge of pupils who have two years of grammar school work to complete and giving them the first year, or possibly the first and second years, of high school work.¹ The purpose of the junior high school has been to bridge the gap between the grammar grades and the high school in order that fewer students may drop out. To some extent *the junior high school should have a new and different course of study* from that which was formerly followed in the upper grammar grades and in the lower year or years of the high school.

The junior high school makes use of departmental organization and methods. In many cities, however, departmental work is found in the upper grammar grades. Each pupil has a class teacher, but has different teachers for such subjects as mathematics, English, and science. The junior high school is like the grammar school in that most of the subjects are required, at least half of the work of every pupil being the same as that taken by every other. For the rest of the work, however, the junior high school is like the high school. A pupil is

¹The junior high school can classify or group pupils who need or wish the same type of work better than can be done in grammar schools, even if the latter have departmental work. This is made possible by the larger districts served by the junior high schools, districts which are, after all, much smaller than those of the regular high school.

Purpose
of the
junior high
school.

Character-
istics of
junior high
schools.

allowed to select either a general department, within which he may take additional subjects, or he may choose a course that allows him to elect some other subjects in which he is particularly interested. The required subjects strengthen the foundation upon which any good advanced education must be built. If the pupil is allowed to elect some of his subjects, however, he is more likely to be interested in his work and therefore to remain in school. He will also be better trained in the special work for which he is preparing himself.

The regular, more or less routine, subjects should be taken by the student who expects to remain in school, as they will give the best preparation for later years. If the student branches off too early into practical and technical subjects, or acquires special skill along those lines, he may not be so well fitted for advanced work, if he wishes to continue in school.¹

A junior high school which attempts to bridge the gap between grammar school and high school, but which instead creates a still greater gap between the junior high school and the senior high school, has failed absolutely of its purpose.

58. General School Regulations—High School Courses of Study.—A large majority of students who have first year high school work are taking it not in the last year of a junior high school, but in regular high schools.² The ordinary high school has four classes, known as freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior, and sometimes as ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years. The course of study is arranged to provide different courses for different groups of pupils. For graduation sixteen or more full year subjects, or an equivalent, are usually required;

Objections
to very
early voca-
tional
training.

Failures in
junior high
school.

Classes and
general
graduation
require-
ments.

¹ In this connection consult §§ 119, 143-145.

² Out of 1,332 schools reporting in the North Central states, only 170 were junior high schools. Junior high schools are fairly common in the West, but much less numerous in the East.

but a well organized high school does not allow a student to graduate with any sixteen subjects.

The solid part of a good high school course.

In most American high schools, there is a *general school requirement*. For example, in California each student must take two years of English, one year of a laboratory science, and one year of history or other social science, usually American history and civics. In addition, each graduate must have had *three or four units of the major subject* of his course and *three units of one closely related subject* or two units each of two related subjects. For instance, in one school, if a student selects the English course, i. e., majors in English, he is required to take four years of English and three years of either social science or a modern language.

Choices in elective subjects.

There are usually some requirements in each department, but ordinarily about four full year *electives* may be selected by the student. This should be done on the advice and with the consent of the head of the department in which he majors. Most students take four subjects a year and graduate in four years. Since some work in physical education is usually taken in addition to four other subjects, a student who has not failed in any subject, or who has not been absent for any length of time, will usually have more than sixteen units at the end of his senior year.

Size and general character of high school classes.

59. Classroom Groups.—Instruction in high schools and in junior high schools is usually given in groups or classes of from twenty to forty students. In the freshman year of the high school, there is a large number of duplicate sections or classes in most subjects, but with senior subjects that are not required for graduation there is ordinarily only one class or section at a time. Important subjects are usually arranged by half years, and the work of any semester can be begun either in September or in February.

If good work is to be done, the personnel of a class should remain constant during a semester. If changes are made constantly, the group can not be a unit, the teacher does not know what the members can do, the members can not become acquainted with one another, and the best methods for that group can not be discovered and used. A class ought to be made up of students of a similar *type* or grade. It is unfair to place the quick student with a class made up chiefly of pupils who are barely able to carry the work. It is unkind to place the slow student in a class made up almost entirely of students who learn easily, react quickly, and recite promptly.

The problem of a fairly permanent and homogeneous group.

60. Promptness and Regularity.—In many well organized high schools no student can be admitted to any class without an entrance card. He is expected to be in class daily before a tardy bell rings and remain in class until dismissed by the teacher. A closing bell is usually rung. It gives a signal that the period is over and that the pupils should pass to the next recitation.

Entrance to class.
The class period.

Some classes have no tardiness whatever, having a code of honor which makes tardiness one of the cardinal sins. Tardiness is bad for the student, whereas promptness and regularity are two of the most important traits of character which a man or woman can acquire. Tardiness is bad for the class because it interferes with work.

Objections to tardiness.

Absence is sometimes unavoidable. When a person is sick, it is necessary for him to stay away for his own sake and possibly for the sake of the others in the class. Illness in the family is sometimes responsible for the absence of a student; and occasionally there are other unavoidable causes of absence. It is safe, however, to say that most cases of absence among high school students are preventable, being due to carelessness, thoughtlessness, and indifference, rather than to reasonable cause.

Objections to absence.

In absence and in tardiness an old saying holds, "an

Need of
making up
losses at
once.

ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." An absentee loses the work done in his absence. However well he may do the tasks which he personally is supposed to perform, if the class is doing group work, he will have lost the benefit of all discussions and the mental stimulus that comes from group action. If the pupil is absent but one day, the work that was lost should be made up at once, so far as it is possible to make it up at all. If the absence has covered several days, whenever possible the student should go on with advance work and make up the back work at his earliest convenience. A student who is compelled to do the back work first, as in Geometry or Latin, may not catch up with the class for two or three weeks—a serious misfortune.¹

The relation
of
pupil to
the class.

61. Relation of Teacher to Pupil.—A high school student is no longer a child. He is supposed to be a thoughtful youth, who has selected his course with a definite purpose in mind and with the aim of getting the most possible out of his education. He should give some thought to the reason why the class is organized in the way that it is and why it uses the methods that it does rather than some other methods. As any one student can not modify the work and methods of other pupils, and as he is in practical control of his own mind and methods, if he is wise he will devote his attention chiefly to studying and improving his own work and ways.

The teacher
as a leader
and guide.

Some students have the impression that the teacher is a martinet who likes to make pupils do things for their own discomfort. If we turn back to our discussion of one-sided and two-sided relations and apply that knowledge to the classroom, we shall see at once that the teacher is, after all, only the leader of the group with

¹ Members of each school should learn as quickly as possible the proper forms necessary to excuse absence or tardiness, and should learn promptly and use carefully the best methods of making up any work that has been missed.

authority to see that the group is properly organized and that its work is done in the best manner possible. The relation of teacher to pupil is, or should be, two-sided.

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Questions

1. What is school citizenship? Why is it like citizenship in the nation? Keeping in mind the length of the recess periods in the different schools and the different ages of most of the students in those schools, compare the play problem in the grammar school, the junior high school, and the high school.

2. What persons are allowed to play on the grammar school grounds, on each side of the buildings? Is anyone discriminated against because he is too young or too old? Has any pupil for-

*Primarily for teachers.

feited the right to remain on the playground and enjoy its privileges? If so, how did he forfeit the right?

3. Give some of the school rules which affect the playground and its use. Try to find a reason for each rule, that is, explain why it is a good one or in what respects it can be made better. On the boys' playground, what other rules are practically made and respected by the boys themselves?

4. Would you call the boys on the school ground a democratic group of persons? To what extent is it possible for a bully or a dictator to control the school ground and the school games for his own personal advantage? Are games on the playground open to anyone who wishes to play them and who has sufficient skill? Do they help to develop the boys' idea of what is fair and square? What are some of the lessons taught to the boys by the playground?

5. Explain whether the girls' playgrounds leave the girls undeveloped as school citizens. If so, what can the girls do, on the school grounds or elsewhere, to remedy any lack of games and to develop these qualities of honor, fair play, and coöperation which the boys have learned, or should have learned, on the playground?

6. Compare purpose, methods, and courses in the grammar school, the junior high school, and the regular high school. What kind of course in citizenship is offered by the schools of this city in grades five to twelve inclusive? What are the advantages of departmental work for young students? What are the disadvantages? For the student who continues his school work, why are regular foundation subjects better than more practical, technical, "skill" subjects?

7. Why should much of a pupil's work be connected with one major subject and one or two minors? What is meant by an elective subject? What should determine the electives which you will choose in high school?

8. How is a pupil admitted to class in this school? When is he tardy? Name at least three reasons why tardiness is objectionable. If loss is occasioned by absence, how can the work best be made up and how quickly can it be done? (Consider two subjects in addition to that of citizenship.) How are absences and tardiness excused in this school?

9. How can the relation between the teacher and an advanced pupil become a two-sided one? What opportunities do teachers give students to teach themselves? Show that democratic schools are impossible unless students deserve privileges, assume responsibilities, and possess a fair degree of maturity.

CHAPTER VI

WORK OF THE CLASSROOM

1. Preparation of work
 - a. Lesson assignments and preparation
 - b. Aims and means in lesson preparation
 - c. Suggestions regarding study
2. The recitation
 - a. Different types of recitations
 - b. How to organize and present material
 - c. Collateral reading
3. Examinations
 - a. Examinations and reviews
 - b. Preparation for an examination
 - c. Cheating in examinations
 - d. School citizenship and examination supervision
4. The class, the individual, and society
 - a. Group responsibility and individual leadership
 - b. Is education worth what it costs?

PREPARATION OF WORK

62. Lesson Assignments and Preparation.—A teacher should assign lessons that can be prepared within a reasonable time. If his assignment is clear, direct, and suggestive, he has every right to expect careful, thoughtful preparation. If necessary, the pupil should take notes on the work assigned. The teacher has the right to demand that the student pay close attention, understand all important suggestions, be able to start his work quickly, and know what he must attempt to do.

The preparation of a lesson is not a simple task, although it may be one to which a student may have given little or no thought. Much of the education that we acquire we

What constitutes a good lesson assignment.

Importance of correct lesson preparation.

gain in the preparation of our lessons. The person who learns how to study well and uses better methods month by month is obtaining a good education whether he learns anything in the classroom or not, and a well prepared student is always interested in good class work.

Relative value of information and knowledge.

63. Aims and Means in Lesson Preparation.—After a quarter century in the classroom, the writer realizes the importance of *facts* in the understanding of any subject. Facts, however, give us only *information*, and the object of education is not primarily to secure information but to secure knowledge. *Knowledge* is not mere information, although to a considerable extent it is organized information. We must not forget, therefore, that without information—solid, practical facts—there is little knowledge. This is his advice: “Don’t be afraid to acquire facts and more facts.¹ Retain the most important of those facts, but treat them as a means to an end, not as an end in themselves, because education is a process of acquiring knowledge, and power, and possibly wisdom.”

Causes of failure and of success in school.

Probably more cases of failure in school are due to *lack of concentration* than to any other single cause. The person who does not give his attention wholly to the work at hand will make but half progress with it. When a boy is playing “short stop” on the school nine, he does not need to be told that he should not watch airplanes or spend his time looking at distant hills, for his attention is completely concentrated on the batter and the ball, on throwing the ball “to first” ahead of the runner. *Interest* is probably the most important single element of concentration, and interest, as well as concentration, is largely a matter of habit. A boy who permits himself to think that a subject is not interesting and important has rolled

¹ Not all facts are of equal importance. In studying a subject those facts are most necessary and valuable that really explain what changes occurred, why the event happened, or what resulted from it. In studying facts, therefore, notice their relation to each other and try to remember them through these relations rather than as separate entities.

unnecessary stumbling blocks in his own path. If play is little but enjoyable work, as Professor Thomas insists, make a game of the class duties, and "get into the game."

64. Suggestions Regarding Study.—When the teacher asks you at the beginning of a recitation what the lesson is for that day, have you ever had the experience of wondering rather than knowing? How often could you pick out the main topic of that day and give the substance of five essentials included within that topic? Why not ask yourself these questions in advance: "What is the main topic for to-day? What are three, four, or five of the subjects which make that topic what it is?" When the lesson was assigned, those points may have been made clear; but it is possible that the teacher wished you to work them out for yourself as the chief task in preparing the lesson. Learn to ask yourself questions. Learn to discriminate between important and less important material. Learn to organize your materials by noticing the connections between subdivisions of the main subject.

A successful student is almost always regular in his periods for study. An unsuccessful pupil studies any lesson when he can, and, as he does not plan his work, usually has little time for any. Have a regular time for each subject, and as far as possible study it at that time. We have heard much about the use of midnight oil; the best students do not burn it.

Remember that there is no virtue in spending a long time over any subject. Your capacity as a student is measured (1) by doing your work well, (2) by doing it regularly, (3) by doing it quickly, and (4) by learning to do it better and better in a shorter and shorter time. If, in the ninth grade, you use methods that would have been considered good in the seventh grade, you are two years behind the times. Who wants to be out-of-date?

Need of
good dis-
crimination.

Need of
planning
and regu-
larity.

Need of
constantly
improving
methods.

THE RECITATION

Use of the question and answer method.

65. Different Types of Recitations.—In the classroom many different methods may be used by different teachers and with different subjects. Three or four methods, however, are especially common in group work. That which is used most in the grades is a question and answer method, the teacher asking many questions to which fact replies are given by the pupils. Very little thought work is done, and most of the boys and girls are satisfied



Photo by Field Photographic Service, Pasadena

CLASS ORGANIZED AS A CIVICS CLUB
(One of the author's advanced civics classes)

to answer in one word or in a very few. A second form of recitation consists in the asking of questions which the students answer somewhat more fully. If students are not allowed to volunteer until someone has had a chance to recite, and if the answers are as full as the subject matter permits, recitations of this kind can be made good drill for memory work and will present a subject fairly well and from many angles. Much of the good work of the grades is of this type.

Some classes can not, or will not do any better work

than that mentioned in the preceding paragraph. They compel the teacher to hear recitations, and nothing but recitations, largely because they will not prepare lessons properly unless they are forced to recite daily upon definite facts. Every class that is worth while should aim to reduce the teacher's drudgery to a minimum. If a student's work is prepared, whether he is likely to be called upon or not, the teacher can save much of the time that otherwise would be used to draw forth information or pound facts into the minds of pupils. If students learn how to organize their material, they can recite upon it in the form of a topic, that is, a well organized and closely related group of facts and ideas. In this way they can save the teacher many questions and reduce greatly the time spent in recitation. This will leave time for discussion or for the study of problems.

Recitation
by topics.

A method which may be used in later years, but which is not so easy for younger students, is the *development method*. In attacking a subject as a topic, the members of the class should discuss it thoroughly, rather than have material presented from several books by different students. It is well to try to find the best method of approaching each subject and to work out the next step carefully. By developing the topic from stage to stage, a class can finally complete it. It is then highly desirable to go back and cover the whole ground, first giving the name of the topic—or a statement of the problem—and then explaining it from the beginning to the conclusion. Much interest may be developed by treating some concrete subject as a *project*, upon which definite materials are gathered and studied, the students drawing conclusions and obtaining definite results. There are several advantages of the problem-topic method: students are forced to think a problem through; they are compelled to use their judgment about good introductions; they must

Development
of a topic as
a method
of solving
a problem.

progress logically from one step to the next, and therefore not only understand the problem as a whole, but see the relation of one part of it to another.

How to
arrange
and
introduce
material
of a topic.

66. How to Organize and Present Material.—Be prepared to organize your material so that you can easily *connect facts that belong with one another*. When introducing a topic, see if one fact will not introduce it better than another. Notice what kind of material should follow the introduction. In a narrative account in history, events may be considered in a chronological order. In a history topic that is being discussed logically, try to get together all your material in a still better form. Only by watching the arrangement of material within a topic, is it possible to give a good topic recitation, and a good topic recitation is a thing of joy.

How to
make class
discussion
a success.

If there is opportunity for class discussion, *always keep to the subject*. Know what the subject is and what should belong to it, and see if you can discuss only those things which help to make the subject clearer. A class discussion of a topic is like a topic recitation, but it is very much more difficult to keep to the point. In any case, be prepared to help, for class discussion is like a game, which requires the participation of all.

Suggestions
on outside
readings.

67. Collateral Reading.—In connection with many subjects, history and English for example, there is a considerable amount of reading for which we use the awkward title, “outside work.” In history some collateral reading should be done even by freshmen students. Almost every school has a library of which it is proud. The collection of books is not chiefly for show but for use. Outside reading need not be done every day. Hence a problem: When shall the collateral reading be done? If the reading is related to the work of the week, why not do it when it will be of most help? If the class is studying the Crusades, and there is an assignment of outside

reading on the Children's Crusade, should it not be completed before the Children's Crusade is discussed in class? *One outside reading in its place is worth two done a week late.* In some classes it is possible to give reports on outside readings. When this is the case, the pupil must read the assignment before that subject is considered in class; he has every incentive to do the work well and to explain the topic in detail to his fellows. In taking notes and in writing papers, pupils should be careful not to copy the words of authors without giving credit. If they do, they may be guilty of plagiarism.

The outside reading which we do by ourselves, chiefly for our own benefit, presents a different problem. We should read the whole of the reference and select with care that part upon which we are to take notes. Some students do not think enough of themselves to read the assignment carefully and thoroughly. Much has been said about honor systems in schools. There is probably no task for which the student needs to place himself upon his honor more than in doing well his outside reading, especially those readings upon which no notes are taken. *Collateral reading is a splendid test of character.* The poor student does this work in a slipshod manner, never has his notes ready on time, and, in general, shows that he is spineless. The good student does the work at the best time, does it well, and is always "ahead of the game." Reading is not child's play, it is a man's work. The most intellectual of the ancient philosophers, Plato, is reported to have said that the end of education is learning to read.

Importance
and benefits
of collateral
reading.

EXAMINATIONS

68. Examinations and Reviews.—Many students would not object to school were it not for examinations. Examinations seem to be characteristic of school rather

Why is an
examina-
tion neces-
sary?

than of life, but in a true sense, life is continually re-examining us. If school is to prepare us for life, to teach us how to live, it must give us some tests and some examinations.

The real
value of
reviews.

In the grades and possibly in the lower years of the high school, tests or examinations are likely to be preceded by reviews. With the student who is in school for a purpose, the right kind of review should be invaluable. When our armies in France were advancing against the Germans, they stopped occasionally in order to "consolidate" their gains. A review, and possibly a test, serves somewhat the same purpose. A student who is continually accumulating, needs to go back and pick out the more important material, to refresh his memory on things that have slipped away, and to get a better grip on the underlying principles of the work that has been done. In going over the work the first time, he is overwhelmed with a mass of detail. In review he sees how all of these details, apparently so different, are related to the main subject.

The need
of learning
to ask
yourself
the right
kind of
questions.

69. Preparation for an Examination.—With advanced classes, the writer has sometimes asked the students to make out their own examinations, that is, to suggest questions suitable for examination. Even a freshman high school student must be able to do this to some extent in order to prepare himself properly for a test. If he has not the slightest idea of what questions the teacher may ask, or why the teacher asks any of them, he is in no way prepared to take the examination.

Different
types of
test ques-
tions.

Test questions or examination questions may be simply fact questions, covering material that has already been studied carefully. They may be general questions, combining different kinds of facts gathered at different times but belonging to the same subject or topic. They may be partly general questions and partly thought questions,

bringing together material and asking the student to explain the meaning or the value of the facts presented. They may be thought questions, dealing with principles which underlie work that has been treated in the preceding weeks. If tests are to measure growth, the type of question will depend largely upon the grade of the class. Fact questions may predominate in freshmen examinations; more thought work will inevitably be included in senior tests.

The art of giving examinations is not an easy one. If an examination is to be fair to both student and teacher, it should cover the work that has been done in class, but it should also call for capacity to bring material together and work out problems similar to those which have been developed in class. *It is wise to learn the art of preparing for tests and the art of answering questions satisfactorily.* In advanced examinations, where facts must be presented in topics, a conglomeration of facts has very little value compared with a topic that is correctly introduced, well organized, and concisely presented.

Problems
in exami-
nation
giving and
taking.

70. Cheating in Examinations.—We sometimes think of a test or examination as chiefly a test of knowledge. It may be a test of character. In many classrooms no test or examination can be given by a teacher unless he watches the students every minute. Why? Because some students haven't the "examination character" that will stand the test. A student who would not cheat at games might be perfectly willing to take advantage of a teacher, if he could do so without danger of being caught. He never stops to ask himself these questions: "Why should I cheat?" "Whom am I cheating?" If he did, he would realize that he could not possibly cheat the teacher. The only person he can cheat is himself. He can perhaps deceive the instructor by pretending that he has knowl-

Whom does
a cheater
cheat?

edge greater than he possesses. He can take advantage of the members of his class who are too honest to cheat and may thus secure for himself a higher mark than he otherwise would have. In the long run, however, he lowers his grades because his abilities do not grow to correspond with the unfairly high marks that he received at first. It is safe to say that few cheaters stop to question themselves, for if they did, there would be little cheating. The real difficulty is that some students have not thought about this problem, and have not understood that the cheater *injures* a class, although he *cheats* only himself.

In most classrooms, it is probably not wise for the teacher to be absent during examination and to leave the students entirely in charge; but there have been grammar school classes as low as the seventh grade in which the presence of the teacher was not necessary to prevent cheating in examinations. If classes could only learn and practice good citizenship, cheating would disappear because the cheater would come to be looked upon as a school criminal.

What
classes do
not need
supervision?

How good
school
citizenship
really
makes a
school self-
governing.

71. School Citizenship and Examination Supervision. —As we shall notice, if the students do not wish or try to do the right thing, a school must have and enforce many rules. When the students of any class or school show the right spirit, make the teacher and each other as little trouble as possible, and strive to make their class or school the "best ever," either the school has few rules or the rules need not be enforced. *Such a school deserves to be called self-governing*, because the students decide how it shall be managed, and need very little discipline. The same is true of a classroom which is doing fine recitation work or taking examinations in the right way. If the spirit of the school is honesty and nothing but honesty, cheating will be discouraged by the class itself.

If the teacher is not in charge of an examination of

advanced students,¹ who shall be? Shall it be the individual student or the group of students in the class? After all, if there is cheating, it is done by individuals. The individual, therefore, would seem to be the one who should be responsible. But everyone knows that if one person cheats, others who ordinarily would be honest may be tempted to cheat also. If the individual can not be asked to be responsible, can the responsibility be shifted to the whole class? What shall the class do about the matter? Certainly, members of the class must not report cheating to the teacher. Moreover, moral suasion might not have much effect on a person whose principles were so bad that he would cheat in the face of class disapproval. Each advanced class might be asked to decide for itself whether it is willing to accept group responsibility for the prevention of cheating and for the punishment of anyone who attempted to cheat in an examination.² If the class is unwilling to accept this responsibility and believes that its members are not individually strong enough to resist temptation in the absence of the instructor, a considerate teacher will refrain from exposing them to unnecessary temptation.

Why
honesty in
examina-
tions is an
excellent
test of good
school
citizenship.

THE CLASS, THE INDIVIDUAL, AND SOCIETY

72. Group Responsibility and Individual Leadership.

—A fairly mature class in citizenship could easily organize itself into a permanent, more or less self-directing, group, but many classes do not feel the need of having leaders

The
problem
and the op-
portunity
of a
teacher's
absence.

¹ Freshmen high school classes which the writer has taught insist that the teacher should not leave classes unsupervised during examinations earlier than the sophomore year. Most of his senior classes have managed, however, without supervision, although they always do better when he is present. This is a problem which should not be thrust upon a class, and which should not be decided by a class unless it shows ample capacity to solve the problem wisely.

² Training in school citizenship and any real form of self-government in school must be counted failures if the seniors who have had ample opportunity to study citizenship refuse to face squarely this problem of cheating.

other than the teacher. It is a good plan for a class to have the spirit of self-organization, if not temporary or permanent officers. In the absence of teachers, some classes think only of the opportunity for disorder. This is the more strange because usually there are only three or four students who prefer disorder to order. Why should the majority of the class allow itself to be led by those students with poorest civic or school spirit? If the members of such a group would stop and think, they would hesitate to be dominated by those members who are the most thoughtless and careless; because, after all, disorder is due more often to thoughtlessness and carelessness than to evil intent. No society could long exist that allowed itself to be so misled.

What can
be done
in case a
teacher is
absent?

In the absence of a teacher, why is it not possible for a class to select one of its own members as head? Even if it does not study or continue its regular class work, at least it can refrain from annoying other classes. Most of us get into mischief if we are not busy. Classes should, therefore, have something definite to do. Almost invariably lessons have been assigned in advance, unless the teacher has been absent more than one day. If there is no one to assign work or to assign a lesson for the following day, might it not be possible for the group voluntarily to study advance work? In classes in mathematics or in history, for example, there is no reason why some member of the class might not serve as questioner. As each individual is supposed to be in school for a purpose, that is, to educate himself, and as the group as a whole is organized for that purpose, is there any reason why the teacher's absence should be anything less than *an educational opportunity* for the class?

Summary.

In many ways a school can not have a highly democratic form of organization. In the absence of its regular leader, the teacher, the class has its best chance to be self-govern-

ing and to develop educational democracy. What it may lose in education, it may gain in experience in self-government.

73. Is Education Worth What It Costs?—There is another side to this problem of education. The largest single item of expense incurred by our state and local governments is for schools (§245). How many students realize the value of their education and understand, from the standpoint of the community, whether it is worth what it costs? The public does not act as an employer, neither is a student an employee. But even for those pupils who do not work Saturdays, it may be well to compare the value of the work prepared for school on school days with that of service rendered to an employer at the week end. Unless a person is industrious and trustworthy, he is not wanted by any business man and is discharged, because an employer is unwilling to pay wages in excess of the value of services that he receives. In a sense, the community is like an employer that can not discharge an employee who is careless and not studious, unless he is guilty of criminal disorder.

Do most of us realize that our community is paying for our benefit almost as much per hour as an employer would pay us for first class work on Saturday? Every time that we do poor work in school, we are cheating our community just as surely as a boy who shirks and loaf is cheating a Saturday employer. If you were the employer and were paying out good money for the education of others in this class, how many times in the course of the year do you think that you would fail to get your money's worth for the work which they do, or do not do, in the classroom? To how many of your companions would you be willing to pay the twenty cents an hour, or whatever the amount may be, that it costs the community to educate each one of us in this class? If a

What makes a boy or girl worth while to an employer?

How many school pupils are doing work worth what their education costs?

boy spends only fifteen minutes a day preparing each lesson, is inattentive in class, and at the end of the month passes an examination at sixty per cent, is he worth the twenty cents an hour which the city is paying for his education? Ask yourself this question: If you had the money which the community spends every week on your education in one class, would *you* spend it for the work you do and the education you get, or would you spend it for something else?

Obligations
of the
youth
to the
community.

Hasn't the community the right not only to expect but to demand that every boy and every girl should give back value received in regularity, in attention, in industry, and in progress? If true relations are two-sided (§7), what right has any person to expect a community to give him an expensive training which he has not enough sense to appreciate? Even if the individual pupil has no idea of obligation, ought not the community, through its schools, to exercise its authority and compel the student to do work good enough to justify its large expenditures of money?

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Questions

1. After discussing the following questions, write a short paper on how to study and prepare a lesson. How is each of your lessons assigned? Is the lesson assigned in such a way that you have no difficulty in knowing what is wanted the following day? Do you have a regular method of taking the assignment and keeping it? How do you study a lesson, for example, in citizenship or in mathematics? After you begin to study, do you find that you are obliged to hunt for books, notebooks, pencils, rulers, or other things with which you should have started? How often do you allow other things to interrupt either by stopping your work altogether or by breaking into it continually? Can you suggest a method of studying any lesson that will give you better preparation in a shorter time?

2. Name some of the essentials without which a student can not do good work. What attention must be given to the following subjects: (a) regular periods for study, (b) amount of concentration, (c) learning continually better methods of study, and (d) honest and thorough preparation of each day's work? What can you do to make the *class work* a success?

3. Explain three different types of classroom method. Show the disadvantages of the short question and answer method. In what subjects and under what conditions can the topic method be used? How can the topic recitation method be improved (a) by discussion, (b) by the use of development methods, (c) by considering definite projects, and (d) by treating the topics as problems to be worked out logically and completely?

4. Select a topic, and make a list of the points which you wish to include under that subject. See if you can group them under three or four heads according to their similarities. If you can,

*Primarily for teachers.

notice which group ought to be treated first and what point within that group makes the best introduction. In what order can the other material of the topic be used most effectively?

5. If a student knows the textbook, but only the textbook, does he really know the subject? What kind of books should be secured for outside reading? If outside reading must be reported every week, when should the reading be done? Why must it be completed on time? Show why outside reading must be done honestly and carefully if a student is to be a good school citizen. How should material from outside reading be outlined and organized for a report, if the report is not written?

6. Why is it well for us to know that we shall be examined? What is the value of a review? What methods would you use in reviewing history? Algebra? Science? English? Why should a student try to ask himself questions before a class recitation or to imagine the kind of questions a teacher will ask on examination? What methods of preparation will help most in answering questions correctly, briefly, and with material well arranged?

7. Why should an examination be a test of character as well as of knowledge? Why is a person who cheats in examination cheating only himself? How advanced must a class be before the teacher may leave it without danger that the members will cheat? If a teacher is not in charge of an examination, who should be? Should it be the individual student or the group of students in the class? What is the problem in each case?

CHAPTER VII

GROUP METHODS AND ORGANIZATION

1. Parliamentary law
 - a. Organization of school groups
 - b. Methods of conducting meetings
 - c. Main motions and their amendment
 - d. Other motions
 - e. Use of parliamentary law in school
2. Constitution of a high school student body
 - a. Objects and character
 - b. Student organization
 - (1) Consulting councils of students
 - (2) Governing boards or councils
 - (3) Student committees
 - (4) Correlation of central body and classrooms
 - c. Direct participation of students in government
 - (1) Initiative, referendum, and recall
 - (2) Adoption of amendments

PARLIAMENTARY LAW

74. **Organization of School Groups.**—No group can act as a body unless it is organized. As a rule new members are added or old members are dropped according to some well-known plan, and the place of each member in the group is fairly well understood, if not clearly blocked out in rules. A set of rules or laws, however, has been developed for the use of the more formal debating societies or deliberative assemblies, that is, for those who discuss questions or decide upon rules of action. Since one of the earliest and best known of these assemblies was the English Parliament, we call this body of rules "*parliamentary law*."

Rules of
organization,
order,
and debate.

Ways and means of organizing groups.

In a sense any group is self-organized, because it has agreed upon a certain organization and certain forms that it will use in carrying on its work. Probably the members of an old and well established group do not feel that they share in its organization since it is difficult for them to change forms that may have been in use for years or possibly for centuries. With a new group or society, however, old customs do not determine the exact form in which the society shall be organized or the exact methods which it shall employ. Opportunity is given, therefore, for developing new forms or for deciding between old forms of organization, and for selecting the type of work and the ways of working that are preferred by the members of this new group. In school, parliamentary law can therefore be used when a new class organization is started and when work of a civic nature is to be undertaken.

How a new convention or society may be organized.

In organizing a society some person must take the lead. That person or one of his friends is likely to be temporarily in charge of the meeting.¹ That person may be selected as temporary chairman or he may preside while a temporary chairman and a secretary are selected. The choice of permanent officers may then be left until a constitution has been prepared. If the group or society is simply one of a large number of similar organizations to be found in other schools and communities, there may be a type form of constitution which the group will adopt with such changes as local needs may require.

The quorum and order of business.

75. Methods of Conducting Meetings.—In a deliberative assembly or in a school society, the purpose of the organization would be defeated if the discussion and work

¹A national political convention meets for the nomination of a presidential candidate, and is opened by temporary officers, who have been selected by the national committee of that party. As soon as the convention organizes, however, it chooses permanent officers of its own, and possibly selects new committees for carrying on the work of the convention.

were too much "cut and dried." Nevertheless, there must be a *regular order in which business is undertaken*. At a meeting of the organization, the time is divided accordingly. After routine business has been considered, including the reading of the minutes of the last meeting, attention is given to new business. It is not possible, however, for a society to transact business unless a definite percentage of its members are present and ready to act. Such a percentage is known as a quorum. Ordinarily a quorum is a majority of the total membership of the group; but, if it is difficult for so many to gather at one time, a smaller number may be permitted to act.

When the proper time arrives, opportunity is given for consideration of questions in which the body is interested. Regular methods should be followed, in order that fair opportunity be given to all and that the business be transacted in the most satisfactory manner. Only members should be allowed to take part in the work of the group. A member who wishes to do so must wait until another member has finished. He may then ask the presiding officer for opportunity to speak. This privilege is technically known as "having the floor." To obtain it he rises and addresses the presiding officer as "Mr. President" or "Mr. Chairman" or "Madam Chairman," as the case may be. When he has been recognized by the chair, that is, by the presiding officer, he may bring before the assembly anything that is in order according to the rules.

How a
member of
a club ob-
tains the
floor.

76. Main Motions and Their Amendment.—Business is usually introduced by a motion, which is a proposal in definite form for the consideration of the assembly. When a member makes a motion, he not only states his proposition briefly and clearly, but he also gives his reasons for bringing it before the assembly and urges the advantages of taking such action as he proposes.

Character
and form
of main
motions.

The motion is always introduced by the words, "I move." Sometimes, incorrectly, a motion is introduced by the phrase, "I move you," a form which should never be used. After a motion has been made, it must be seconded by some other member before it is regarded as properly before the society.

Consideration of a main motion.

After a motion is made in regular order, and properly seconded, the proposition that it brings before the house is *the only business which the house may consider*, though new points may be introduced, provided they are amendments or proposals to do something with the motion already made. At this point it is customary to *discuss* the proposals offered in a main motion. As stated above, no speaker should be allowed to discuss the proposition unless he has addressed the chair and has been recognized by the chair, and therefore has the floor. As long as a speaker has the floor, he should not be interrupted unless he has exceeded the time limit set for such a speech, or unless he is out of order, that is, unless he has broken some rule.

Nature and limitations of amendment.

If some member of the society believes that the motion should be changed in some respect, he proposes an amendment, which is not a main or original motion but a suggested alteration in the main or original motion. If still further changes seem desirable, an amendment of an amendment may be proposed; but no further amendments may be made to that part of the original motion which has now been amended. That is, there can be only one amendment of an amendment. This does not mean, however, that the original motion may not be amended in several different places by several different amendments.

Supplementary motions debatable and not debatable.

77. Other Motions.—Besides amending a main motion, many things may be done with it or proposed for it. Someone may suggest that the motion should be *laid on the table*. If adopted, the main motion may not again

be considered unless, at a later meeting, it is taken from the table. Among the motions that are not debatable are the motion to *adjourn* and the previous question. *The previous question* is a motion, the purpose of which is to learn whether the society wishes to stop debate upon the original motion and take a vote upon it. If the previous question is passed, the original motion comes before the assembly for a decision or vote. Many motions, including all original motions, may be amended by such motions as laying on the table and the previous question, but some may not be amended. A motion to adjourn may not be amended, although it may be changed to adjourn until a particular time.

When the discussion is ended, the chairman asks the secretary to read the motion, or he restates it, and then calls for a vote. Ordinarily he asks that those who approve "signify by the usual sign," that is, by saying "aye." He then says "those opposed the same." Those who do not favor the motion make use of the usual negative sign, "no." A rising vote may be called for, or even a roll call. If a motion is carried, the chairman says, "It is so ordered." If not adopted, he says, "The motion is lost." No motion is passed unless it represents a majority vote of those present. The rules of a society may require a still larger vote; for example, in many state legislatures, no bill can be passed in either chamber unless it is approved by a majority of those elected to that house. When the United States Senate takes a vote on a treaty, it is not ratified unless approved by two-thirds of those present. After a motion has been adopted, it can be brought before the society again at the same session only by a motion to reconsider, and a motion to reconsider can be made only by a person who has already voted with the majority.

Methods
of voting.

78. Use of Parliamentary Law in School.—Few clubs

Limited
use of
parliamen-
tary law in
ordinary
assemblies.

school societies, or class meetings observe parliamentary rules as carefully as is desirable. The ordinary forms of parliamentary law are learned easily, however, and with a little practice can be used without difficulty by any group of young people. Although the routine methods prescribed by parliamentary law seem slow and cumbersome, if much business is to be done, they are fairer and in the end more satisfactory than a hit-or-miss discussion of proposed changes.

Advantages
of studying
parliamen-
tary law in
citizenship
classes.

Classes in civics, and especially in school citizenship, should be organized with officers. Opportunity should be given to learn the names and forms of ordinary motions and actually to practice parliamentary procedure. School problems might furnish material for such discussion. Possibly some important subject connected with current events may be considered to advantage.

CONSTITUTION OF A HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT BODY

Distinctively educa-
tional and
distinctively
student
groups.

79. Objects and Character.—The primary purpose of a school as an organization must be educational. Within a school there must be smaller groups also distinctively educational in character. Among these are the divisions into *years*, such as senior and freshman, into *departments*, such as English and mathematics, and into *classes* under the instruction of individual teachers. In addition to these distinctively educational groups, there are many *school organizations* of students whose purpose is incidentally educational but primarily social, using the term social in a broad sense. The largest of these is usually a student body organization which consists, theoretically, of all students in the school.

Problems
of student
activities.

It is impossible for any one student to specialize in all student interests and it requires special effort for a majority of students to participate in any school activity, such as football, tennis, debating, or swimming. Only a few can

take part actively in competitive contests. The many must be content to show an active interest in the games and "meets" in which especially trained representatives of the school compete.

The object of student body organization is to aid those who may become successful contestants, to stimulate the interest of all pupils in student affairs of a competitive nature, to secure their coöperation in working out school problems of a general character, to promote those ideals for which the school stands, and to create a wholesome atmosphere of school enthusiasm and spirit for anything that concerns the whole school. A student association should aim to unite all the students of the school into a single body that studies school problems and activities and is determined to make its own school the best in existence.

80. Consulting Councils of Students.—In order that a large number of students may act as a body, it is necessary that they have a single association with officers or a central committee in charge. In the high schools that have student associations, the province of these organizations is ordinarily limited to supervision or direction of a few student sports and activities.

Usually there is some central council or board. This may be made up of one representative from each of the major sports and of representatives from the four classes. Such a council is little more than a coöperating body and has comparatively little power. It keeps in touch with the different interests and activities carried on through the school. Important among these are football, baseball, basketball, and track. The members of the council are ordinarily chosen by the students interested in particular sports, with the advice and consent of the administrative officers of the school. On these councils there are always faculty representatives to guide and help the students.

Some purposes of a student body.

Lack of student organization in our high schools.

Selection, organization, and powers of cooperating councils of students.

Extent of student self-government, and of school government by students.

81. Governing Boards or Councils.—In a fairly large number of high schools, there is a governing council or board which directs or controls student body affairs and activities. Most of these communities have *student self-government*. That is, under the direction and supervision of the school authorities they manage *student affairs*. In a very few high schools, the student association is allowed to go farther than this. There is not only a governing



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HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS HOLDING AN ELECTION

council or board, but also a student court. Possibly the student council or board may act as a court for determining the guilt or innocence of students who break laws of the school. In these few schools which have *school self-government*, therefore, the student organization not only takes full control of distinctively student activities, but it aids the school administration in the enforcement of school rules, and in the trial and punishment of

offenders who break rules of the school or of the student body.

In a few schools the board or council is made up of a president, one or more secretaries, and chairmen of important committees. Members of the council or board may be selected for one semester or for a year. They are usually chosen from the senior class or at least from the upper classes. Ordinarily these officials are elected either with the approval of the school authorities or solely by the students themselves after nominations have been approved by the principal and vice principal. In many schools, no person may be a candidate for any important office unless he is taking full work and has a good standing. As the duties of these offices are likely to interfere greatly with studies of the councillors, it is essential that student officials should have had grades considerably above the average. Nominations of the commissioners are usually made by petition, a primary election is held, and in a final election the officials are chosen by ballot. These elections give valuable training in and for democracy.

In many schools the governing body of the student organization is made up of a *commission*, which selects its own chairman. One of the commissioners is likely to look after finance, a second after athletics, a third after debating, and a fourth after publications. If there are five or seven commissioners, the others care for other activities that are especially important for the students of that school.

82. Student Committees.—In addition to the central board or council, schools with student organization usually have other student officials and a number of committees. In a school that uses the commissioner system, each commissioner is likely to be the chairman of a small committee. ¹One school uses the following plan: Each

Selection
of mem-
bers of a
students'
council.

Commis-
sion form
of student
govern-
ment.

Composi-
tion of
committees
under gov-
erning
boards.

¹Compare this plan with that of the President's cabinet (§ 261), the members of which are heads of separate departments.

member of the board has his own committee. On each committee are a faculty advisor and a student from each of the four classes of the high school. The class treasurers are on the finance committee and a special athletic representative of each class belongs to the athletic committee.



FOUR MINUTE SPEAKERS' ORGANIZATION—MANUAL ARTS
HIGH SCHOOL, LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

Lack of
uniformity
in student
organiza-
tion.

A study of student organization in many high schools shows that there is absolutely no uniformity in the type of organization that is in use, in the extent of power exercised by the student body, in the form of committee organization, or in other work that is attempted through student officials or groups.

83. Correlation of Central Body and Classrooms.— A central governing board of students is likely to be as little in touch with the whole student body as is a faculty council. As it is made up of selected representatives, who

Need of co-
operating
organiza-
tions.

have duties which place them above the other students, there is great danger that the members may lose sight of the wishes and needs of the students themselves. If "a little knowledge is a dangerous thing," a little brief authority is equally dangerous to the student who does not possess good judgment and sound character. In any case, it is desirable that student commissioners should be aided by organizations which bring them closely in touch with their fellow students on the one hand and with the faculty on the other. Faculty advisors of the governing council, board, or committees, or faculty members of a consulting council, however, will probably prevent the central group of officers from doing things that will interfere with the educational work of the school.

If a central council or board is to be fully informed on school sentiment, there ought to be opportunity either for full discussion in general assembly or for much more satisfactory *discussion in classrooms*. Some schools have tried the following plan: A certain class period, possibly the second in the morning or the first in the afternoon, has ten or fifteen minutes extra per day for the consideration of any school questions that may arise. In these class groups, important school problems are presented and discussed.

In one school every student in each of the classrooms belongs to one of the large committees of which the seven school commissioners are chairmen. Each of the seven small committees has a representative in each classroom. For example, the athletic representatives from the eighty classrooms of the school serve as a consulting committee for the commissioner of athletics. To these class representatives, with the advice of the principal and assistants, the commissioners may suggest school problems for discussion, in order that all class groups may consider the same questions at the same time, rather than deal with

Advantages
of cooper-
ating class
room or-
ganization.

Ways in
which the
classes and
commis-
sioners can
coöperate.

numerous, dissimilar topics. Suggestions can also be made by the classes to the commissioners through the class representatives.

The three advantages of this organization are (1) coöperation of the school with the councilors or commissioners in a better organization, (2) concentration of attention by all students upon those interests and activities which are needed and most desired, and (3) good training in democracy. Through classroom organization in coöperation with the student body, every member of every class has an active share in the student government of the school. As one school has expressed this idea: "If there is a pupil in this school who is not fired with enthusiasm, and we can not fire him with enthusiasm, then we should promptly 'fire' him with enthusiasm."

84. Initiative, Referendum, and Recall.—The regulations of the student body must necessarily conform to the school law of the state and to all rules made by the Board of Education and other school authorities. If there are special student rules or ordinances, they should be made by the accredited representatives of the students, the council or board, and approved by the principal and his assistants. For fear that the commissioners may not understand what is needed or wanted by the students in general, it is wise that a student body constitution should provide for the initiative and the referendum. Ordinances which the commissioners may not see fit to enact, but which students desire, may thus be presented in the form of initiative petitions. If these are signed by a certain percentage of the students, for example, fifteen per cent, they should then be presented to the board or council, and, if not enacted by that body, be submitted within a comparatively short time, to a vote, the referendum, of the student body. A majority of the members voting at

Advantages
of coördinating
student coun-
cils and
classrooms.

Adoption
of student
ordinances
by direct
legislation.

such an election should be necessary to adopt the proposed rule or regulation.

Furthermore, if the members of the central board or council pass a rule or ordinance which is disapproved by many of their fellows, it should be possible for a certain percentage of the students to file a petition, requesting that this ordinance be presented to the student body for its approval or disapproval. The objectionable ordinance should then be submitted to popular vote within a short time. If a school constitution provides for the initiative and referendum, it is seldom necessary to make use of those provisions in practice.

In a high school with student government, recall petitions and elections may be permitted by the student body constitution. Although it is probably unwise to hold new elections for the possible removal of student representatives, it is undoubtedly desirable to have some check upon possible use of autocratic power or abuse of authority by one who should be a student representative rather than a personal dictator.

85. Adoption of Amendments.—All constitutions provide comparatively simple means of amendment. Amendments, however, should be proposed only at definitely stated periods or at the request of an overwhelming majority of the students in the school. Often city charters do not permit amendments to be submitted oftener than once in two years, and there is no good reason why school constitutions should be amended more frequently than once a semester or once a year. Some student body constitutions allow amendments to be proposed by petition, if signed by one fifth of the members of the association, and provide for a vote within thirty school days.

Sometimes a student has the idea that a student body is a law unto itself. Such an association could not exist

Rejection
by students
of objec-
tionable
ordinances.

Use of the
recall in
schools.

Need for
and
problems
of amend-
ments.

Relation of student body constitution to laws of the land.

without the school and has no reason for existence except as a part of the school. As the school is and should be pre-eminently an educational institution, the student body organization should look after *common student interests* within an educational sphere. As stated above, the student body constitution and rules must, of course, be subject to the rules of the school, just as the rules of the school board are subject to the laws and constitution of the state.

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Questions

1. What is parliamentary law? How is a meeting called? Who is temporarily in charge of it? What permanent officers does it need? In what order is business undertaken?
2. What is meant by a quorum? Who is allowed to take part in any discussion? How does a member address the chair? Has he any right to speak without first being recognized by the chair? What is a motion? In what form is a motion presented by the mover? What else must be done before a motion can be brought before an assembly for discussion? How long may discussion continue? Mention two ways of ending a discussion.

3. Study the proper forms for proposing an amendment. How many times may an amendment be amended? Name a motion that is not debatable. In what form does the chairman put a motion?

*Primarily for teachers.

How is a vote ordinarily taken? In case of doubt, how does the presiding officer decide whether the motion was carried or lost? What is a motion to reconsider? By whom may it be made: (a) if the motion has been lost; (b) if the motion has been adopted?

4. If possible, visit a meeting of the city council or commission. To what extent was the procedure parliamentary? State motions that were made, and summarize arguments that were presented.

5. Organize the class into an assembly, making sure that the right officers are elected in the right way. Have one or two subjects, possibly current events, for consideration. Make use of each one of several different kinds of motions at least once, and see that everything is done correctly throughout the whole proceeding, including the form of the motions, the way in which they are presented and considered, and the way the votes are taken. For the sake of practice, hold at least two other sessions during the term, and see that every member observes proper parliamentary usages in everything that is done.

6. What is a student body organization or association? What are some of its purposes? What is the difference between student self-government and school self-government? In what kind of school is it desirable to have a consulting or coöperating council? How should such a council be composed? What powers should it have? What powers should be possessed by a governing council or board in a school which has student government but not school self-government? Describe fully the student body organization of this school.

7. What student committees are needed in practically every school? If a committee has charge of student affairs, should any of its members belong to the faculty? If the commission system is used, is it desirable that every commissioner be chairman of a large committee?

8. How does a central board of students sometimes lose touch with the student body? How can such a council be kept informed regarding faculty wishes? What methods other than those mentioned in the text can you suggest for bringing together commissioners and students?

9. What is meant by the initiative? What is the referendum? Should a student body constitution provide for both? What are the advantages of the recall? Why must it be possible to amend a constitution? Why should it be difficult to do so?

CHAPTER VIII

GENERAL STUDENT ORGANIZATION

1. Class organizations
 - a. Members and officers
 - b. Conduct of meetings
 2. Assemblies
 - a. School assemblies
 - b. Student assemblies
 - c. Responsibility for order in assembly
 - (1). Leader or group responsibility
 - (2) The problem of individual responsibility
 3. Problems of student organization and activities
 - a. Needs of democratic schools
 - b. What constitutes democratic student organization?
 - c. The problem of school self-government
 - d. Real self-government in high schools
- Conclusion—Leadership and group organization

CLASS ORGANIZATIONS

How class membership is decided.

86. Members and Officers.—In addition to the groups that we have already considered, there are a number of distinctively student organizations. One type of these gatherings is *the class meeting*, held by seniors or by members of other classes. In a sense the school determines the qualifications of the members of these classes because it decides who are freshmen, who are sophomores, who are juniors, and who are seniors. Nevertheless, the class itself has some leeway in determining its own membership; and unfortunately the active membership of any class is considerably smaller than the school enrollment of such classmen. Opportunity is given to the class to secure a hundred per cent enrollment and to exclude those who do not belong.

According to custom there are certain *permanent officers* in each class, including the president, one or more vice presidents, a secretary, and a treasurer. Committees may be appointed for general or special work in which the class is interested. In class meetings opportunities may be found for one of the most necessary phases of democratic education—the development of leadership. It may seem strange that a single member, the president, can exert the influence that many class presidents have exerted. Sometimes the president gives tone not only to the meetings but to the whole class and to its attitude toward school affairs and general problems. It is probable that such a leader reflects a high standard of conduct on the part of his fellows; but undoubtedly he can raise the general level of those thoughtless persons who simply "follow the leader," and who otherwise would be misled. There is no reason why classes should not make a business of developing leadership of different types not only in their presidents and in chairmen of permanent committees, but through many lines of endeavor, such as athletics, music, debating, dramatics, and other forms of public speaking.

87. Conduct of Meetings.—The class meetings are usually held "after school". If held within school hours, however, the authorities make the rule that they shall not take members from regular classes. Frequently, also, it may be necessary for the school authorities to decide when class meetings shall not be held, even if they do not determine when the meetings shall occur.

If one is to believe the fragmentary accounts that come to teachers, some class meetings are not conducted wisely or well. Little attempt may be made to use parliamentary rules, and occasionally there are reports of actual disorder. In many of these gatherings, affairs are not conducted in a business-like way. If a suggestion is carried

Class offi-
cers and
their op-
portunities
for leader-
ship.

Times of
class meet-
ings.

Problems
and faults
in many
class meet-
ings.

through quickly and without friction, the result may be due to cut and dried action on the part of the officers or executive committee of the class, or to indifference on the part of the other members. Either of these methods represents a serious fault. Class meetings are controlled almost absolutely by the students. If they want democracy, let them not neglect this opportunity.

ASSEMBLIES

Different kinds of school assemblies.

88. School Assemblies.—In many schools general assemblies of students are a prominent characteristic of school life. *Assemblies are of two types*, one that is



Photo by Brown Bros.

ASSEMBLY, JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

distinctively educational and one that is pre-eminently a student affair. Among the educational assemblies are those which are conducted by the school authorities for the purpose of making general announcements and of explaining school methods or school work. When the

members of the school gather to hear some distinguished speaker, the assembly might be considered an educational rather than a student affair.

Even a musical entertainment might be given for its distinctively educational value. In this class might come concerts by first-class college orchestras, by college glee clubs, and entertainments or recitals given by school organizations. Plays staged by members of classes in dramatics and concerts by high school orchestras or by a chorus may be educationally valuable to the students, giving them an opportunity to show what is being done by special groups within the school, and stimulating the participants to do their best before their fellows. When an oratorical contest with a neighboring school is to be held, it is a good plan to have the home contestants appear before the students. All educational assemblies in which students take part help to develop a certain type of leadership, although that leadership may be of a formal nature, as in the part taken by a student in a play.

89. Student Assemblies.—Some school assemblies ought to be conducted by the students for their own sake. Often they meet for their own affairs as a part of the school work, such as the nomination of candidates for student body offices. Football rallies are good examples of this kind of assembly. Rousing speeches can be given by pupils, teachers, and others. Under good yell or song leaders, yells and songs can be learned and practiced. In such an assembly the boys of the school can be formed into a unit that allows them to work off their surplus energy. A first-class student body can be one minute an enthusiastic, vociferous group, and the next, at the call of the chairman, as quiet and orderly as any body of adults.

The problem of student body assemblies is very much like the problem of class meetings but differs in two or three respects. Student body assemblies are usually held

School assemblies that are chiefly for entertainment.

Examples of student assemblies.

Character
and advan-
tages of
special
student
assemblies.

within school hours and attendance is compulsory, except for those excluded for the common good. The business is likely to be of a more important character and the need of right methods more imperative than in meetings of any one class. Separate meetings of Boys' Leagues and Girls' Leagues are especially valuable for the free and open discussion of special problems in which the boys or girls may be interested. In such assemblies very fine opportunities are offered for democratic organization, self-direction, the development of leadership, and the establishing of proper standards of conduct. Students who are really interested in democracy in the school should make a study of the different kinds of assemblies in order to see what types of popular government can be developed in each. They should try to understand in what ways a school assembly gives advantages in the development of school citizenship superior to those of the classroom or any other school organization.

Co-operation
of chairmen
and school
authorities.

90. Leader or Group Responsibility for Order in Assembly.—It is the practice in some high schools to have student body officers preside at all student assemblies and many school assemblies. This plan gives valuable experience to the commissioners and to other students who may appear before the student body. To what extent the presiding officer should be asked to preserve order is a question that must be decided by each school and for each type of assembly. If the work before the assembly is of an educational or semi-educational type, as in the case of a debate or when the members of a school organization appear before the students, discipline should be maintained chiefly or wholly by the school authorities. The presiding officer and his associates should be asked to take as full charge as possible of the meeting, even though the general maintenance of discipline is under school supervision.

In all of these assemblies there are problems of order and courtesy similar to those which arise in the classroom. The circumstances, however, are entirely different. The group is no longer a small one under the supervision of a teacher, but is a large body of students that probably does not meet daily, does not look upon itself as a unit, and has never developed for itself any ideals of conduct. Only when the standards of the school are low or little understood, is disorder on the part of one student excuse for similar or worse disorder on the part of others.

The problem of group standards of conduct.

Assemblies of different kinds call for different kinds of response from the students. Conduct that might be unobjectionable in a distinctively student body assembly might appear positively insulting if a distinguished speaker were addressing the whole school. Undoubtedly most pupils possess sufficient common sense to know what type of conduct is possible and necessary in assemblies of different kinds; but many students do not have good judgment and have difficulty in acting properly on all occasions. The development of right ideals of conduct is not easy and must not be expected without tactful suggestions from teachers and student officers. Any school may be proud if it has developed a fine group spirit and a sense of group responsibility which maintains the best kind of order and will not tolerate misconduct.

Standards of conduct in different types of assemblies.

91. The Problem of Individual Responsibility in Assembly.—Anyone who is interested in boys and girls often wonders why circumstances alter conduct with so many of them. If a person visits a normal school and follows a class from one student-teacher to another, he notices that an apparently law-abiding, public-spirited, and kind-hearted boy or girl may suddenly be transformed into a disorderly, mean-spirited, and careless individual. Being boys and girls they are often thought-

Contrast between conduct of the same students under different conditions.

less, and being in school a few of them feel that order is a problem for the teacher and not for the student. Evidently some pupils have no standards of conduct that mean anything to them. They have little self-respect, self-control, or sense of responsibility for their own self-direction.

Individual responsibility and school democracy.

Democracy is self-direction of an organized group. It is control, by the group, of itself and of its activities. No school can be good in which the rank and file of students lack a sense of individual responsibility as well as of group responsibility. A school is poor whose students have low standards of conduct and need guardians to look after them. There are few better standards than these: a poor school citizen needs to be *watched*; a good student does not need to be *told*.

“Not in the clamor of the crowded street,
Not in the shouts and plaudits of the throng,
But in ourselves, are triumph and defeat.”

PROBLEMS OF STUDENT ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES

What is a democratic school system?

92. Needs of Democratic Schools.—The American nation is the most democratic in existence; the American school system is supposed to be the most democratic in the world. *A democratic nation is not possible without democratic homes and a democratic school system;* but from the very nature of things a nation or a home can not be ruled or controlled by all of its members. It must have leaders who have special authority. A democracy will fail if all share power equally without some organization. A school system must have a superintendent and a school board to control its general affairs. A school must be under the supervision of a single person, the principal. A schoolroom must have its leader and guide, whose task is maintenance of order as well as teaching; for without order, little knowledge is likely to be gained.

Good school citizens must have a clearer idea of what is democratic than is possessed by many adults. These questions may be asked: How democratic is it possible for a school to be? How democratic is it desirable that a student body should be? Since the school is an educational institution of our society, created for the purpose of giving instruction to the young, it is not possible for any group of students to make rules for the school or to decide what the school policies should be. These decisions must be left to responsible persons especially selected by the community. The traditional form of school organization includes a principal, with rather extensive powers, one or more vice principals, possibly heads of departments, and teachers endowed with authority in their own classrooms. In any school in which the principal has had wide vision and the teachers have been large-hearted and generous-spirited, the system has been successful. Its greatest success is attained only when the faculty has the whole-hearted support and coöperation of the students.

93. What Constitutes Democratic Student Organization.—If a school is to have student organization at all, that organization ought to be as democratic as possible. In order to discover how democratic and at the same time how efficient a student body may be, let us notice the nature of good student organization, the necessary authority of different officers, and the desirable limits of the authority of each. Undoubtedly there should be some group of student leaders such as is represented by a council or a board. If the commissioners or counsellors are elected for short terms, as one semester, and especially if they are subject to recall, there is little danger that they will cease to be truly representative. If the constitution gives the students power to elect as representatives those who really do represent them, and if they are not sufficiently interested to select persons

Why
democratic
school or-
ganization
is a com-
munity
matter
rather than
a student
affair.

Elements
of democ-
racy in
student
affairs.

capable of filling those offices, the responsibility for unwise direction of strictly student affairs must rest with the student body. The first need, therefore, of a democratic student organization is to have properly prepared and carefully selected representatives of a well organized student group.

Dangers of granting student officers too little authority.

A second problem arises in connection with the authority possessed by a student body official or by the whole council or board. If the student body gives to its central board too little authority, the board will fail to accomplish what the student to-day wants, and the student government will not only seem to be undemocratic but will actually be so. Here again we have proof that a group which is poorly organized is not successful in carrying on its work. Many people think that democracy and good organization are contradictory ideas; but no body of people can work together unless they are well organized, and *a group that is well organized¹ is democratic.*

Objections to granting too much authority.

There is great danger, however, that if a small board or council has sufficient authority to carry out the wishes and plans of the student body organization, it will confer too little with its advisors and consult less than is necessary with its committees and other student representatives. It may therefore actually be autocratic if it repeatedly carries through policies and plans which it believes necessary for the success of the student body but which students do not really need.

Extent and problem of school self-government.

94. The Problem of School Self-Government.—Some colleges and a few high schools² have adopted some form of *school self-government*. That is a very different thing from student direction of strictly student affairs. In these schools, student boards are chosen by the students or by students and faculty, and have charge of certain

¹A group that is organized from the outside can not be well organized as a group. All true organization proceeds from within.

²See first part of § 81 above,

administrative school duties. They may even maintain discipline in the halls, and possibly in the classes. Undoubtedly the participation of advanced students in the management of student affairs is desirable, but an active share in the government of the school presents an entirely different problem.

A high school is organized for specific purposes. Important among these are instruction in definite subjects, disciplinary and memory work of a mental nature, scientific or logical training, up-building of individual character, development of innate personal capacities, comprehension of civic ideals, training in, as well as for, true social service, and coöperation among students in educational, athletic, or other student interests. Which of these are dominant is immaterial to our present query. No school should be organized for any particular purpose to the exclusion of the others. It must have such an organization as will best meet its needs.

In the few schools which allow the students to have some share in, or entire control of, discipline, courts are necessary. Although some schools, notably the small groups connected with the George Junior Republics and a few others, have been very successful in the trial of offenders by courts composed of students, the method places upon a student body, and especially upon a few students, a responsibility which few student organizations or officials can carry satisfactorily.

95. Real Self-Government in High Schools.—Usually students do not realize to what extent they take part in both the organization and the management of a school, passively if not actively. Practically every school has many rules which it never uses. We do not refer to rules that are dead letters, but to rules that are kept for emergencies, rules regarding discipline and punishment of offences, which are inactive because they are never needed.

Purposes of
a public
high school.

The
problem of
discipline
through
courts.

The right
spirit as
true
democracy.

When the spirit of students is so good that rules of that type need not be enforced, the students are democratic in spirit and actually share in the work of managing the school.

In the preceding sections, numerous cases have been cited of self-direction by students,¹ in short, of student government. On playgrounds, in halls, and in cafeterias, order and success depend far more on the spirit of the students than on the enforcement of school rules. In the classroom a public-spirited group has numerous opportunities to show its good will and make its influence felt as a democratic body. Experience proves that adults as well as youths who wish a larger share in directing groups of which they are members must use what they have, must constantly try better and more democratic ways and methods, and must be willing to make haste slowly. Students who are learning self-government will, of course, not make the same success of any undertaking in democracy as people of greater experience and wisdom. But if we wait until we know how to do things well, we never shall learn. Therefore experiments in democracy, undertaken with caution, should not be delayed until boys and girls can manage them successfully. If students are sufficiently interested, public-spirited, and intelligent to conduct minor experiments in student democracy, there is no reason why they should not have opportunities on a larger basis.

It is well for individual students, for classes, and for schools to understand that school citizenship consists chiefly in carrying on regular work and activities. Especially should students see first that school citizenship consists in obeying the spirit of school rules in order that school laws may be unnecessary, or in order that, if they are formulated, they need not be enforced. Secondly,

¹ For example, consult §§ 54, 55, 61, 70, 72, 79-83, 90-94, 96.

they should see that the spirit of the school, its work, and its success depend upon the scholars and their spirit rather than upon forms of self-supervision or of self-government.

96. Conclusion—Leadership and Group Organization.—From what has already been said, we realize that groups, large and small, must be organized. No organization is possible without leadership; no good leadership is possible without preparation and some innate capacity. For one leader that is developed, however, there are a dozen who have plenty of ability. Usually some one trait is lacking. It may be ambition, enthusiasm, or school spirit, or some personal characteristic, such as self-control, patience, or ability to coöperate. A group which tries to organize without leadership is attempting an impossible task. If a group is large, it will probably be made up of smaller groups set aside for special purposes. Within a school such groups may be school classes, glee clubs, forestry clubs, or other student societies.

Probably the classes are more important than all student associations taken together, because they occupy a dominant place in school work and activities. The organization of a classroom is prescribed by the very nature of its tasks, and arranged in advance by the school authorities. Yet, within a class, leadership is possible for the student who prepares his work best, for the student who thinks, and for the student who knows how to organize his material. In connection with the class there ought also to be some idea of student self-direction and of student organization. Here again, leadership is desirable and necessary. The task of leadership falls to him who can lead. He may have been promoted as reward for hard work, from a minor position to one of greater importance; he may even be a pupil whose grades are low. Problem-solving (§ 65) is part of every day's work

Problems
of leader-
ship and
group or-
ganizations.

Classroom
organiza-
tion and
leadership.

if one is really alive; but only a few of us solve many problems, and still fewer can help others to wise solutions.

No one has a right to ask for leadership unless he is prepared to fill, to the best of his ability, the position for which he is selected. Every leader should watch for chances not only to grow, but also to make his work larger and finer. As leader of a group, he owes to it something better than was given by the previous leader. He must be on the watch, however, against introducing novelties merely for the sake of change. He must give his fellows something worth while.

The relationships of a leader are more important and more numerous than those of the ordinary follower. Undoubtedly there is an instinct for leadership in all human hearts, and the right kind of school will tend to develop that trait in those who hold any place of influence. It should not neglect, however, the rank and file, who can do some work of the leadership type, if it is only to bring to class an idea, gleaned from some book of reference, which is valuable for class work. There is also implanted in all human hearts an instinct of submission and self-abasement. We like to be well led, and, if we are well led, we follow gladly. The group should take advantage of these desires which spring from the oldest and deepest of human motives. He who aspires to power must accept the responsibilities that go with high position. We not only expect but demand of our Presidents accomplishments of which you and I are incapable. As President Grover Cleveland said, "A public office is a public trust."

Obligations
of a good
leader.

Relationships of a
leader and
follower.

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Questions

1. Who are members of the class or year to which students in this classroom belong? What offices does the freshman class have? What student has been elected for each? Name the class committees and tell about the work of each. When are class meetings held? How well are they conducted in this school?
2. Name two types of assemblies. Are both held in this school? Give at least five kinds of school assemblies. How is a student assembly different from a school assembly in its purposes, personnel, methods of procedure, and problems of conduct? Discuss any one problem of conduct for school assemblies. What opportunities for leadership and self-direction are given by regular and by special student assemblies? To what extent should appeal be made to the individual rather than to the group for good conduct in assemblies?
3. What is a democratic school system? Why do we need democratic schools? Why are democratic schools a community matter, not a student affair? In order to have a democratic yet efficient student body, explain (1) what kind of student organization is necessary, (2) how much authority the different school officials should have, and (3) what should be the limits and the checks upon the authority of each student official.
4. Explain the problem of high school self-government (1) in connection with purposes for which a public school exists, (2) necessary administrative organization of a high school, and (3) difficulties in creating successful school organizations of students, in maintain-

*Primarily for teachers.

ing law and order through student control, and in administering school laws justly through student bodies and courts.

5. In what ways do students help to govern classes? List five student activities controlled largely or solely by students. Under what circumstances should students be allowed a constantly larger share in the direction of affairs? Under what circumstances do we usually find that student attempts to direct affairs have been quite unsuccessful? State as briefly as possible what you mean by good school citizenship and school democracy.

6. What qualities are specially necessary for a leader? In your opinion, which quality is most commonly lacking? If a school is to be democratic, why should leadership and self-direction be developed in classrooms? Give some of the obligations of a good leader. Why is the instinct of submission quite as necessary and important as the instinct of leadership? What did President Cleveland mean when he said, "A public office is a public trust"?

7. Write a short essay on school citizenship.

CHAPTER IX

LITERARY AND ATHLETIC ORGANIZATIONS

1. Literary organizations
 - a. The library
 - (1) Organization and rules
 - (2) Ways of finding books and using materials
 - b. Debating
 - c. School publications
 - d. Dramatics and pageantry
 - e. The honor society
2. Physical education and activities
 - a. Importance
 - b. Regular school requirements in physical education
 - c. Play activities and home work
 - d. Military organization
 - e. Athletics
 - (1) Importance of school athletics
 - (2) Athletic contests
3. Other school organizations
 - a. Music
 - b. Departmental and technical clubs
 - c. Social service organizations
 - (1) General
 - (2) Girls' Leagues

Conclusion

LITERARY ORGANIZATIONS

97. The School Library and Its Rules.—The library is one of the most important of the school institutions. In most schools, books may be drawn for only one day or one-half day at a time, but the students may go to the shelves and use books for reference during any period. In many public libraries in America the stacks in which books are kept are not open to the public. Why?

Conditions under which a library is really usable.

Because under those conditions books are frequently injured, if not actually stolen. And yet, if a library is to be used easily and well by those who need it for study, its readers must have access to shelves. Evidently a high standard of conduct is necessary for the proper use of library books in the school and in the community.



GRAMMAR SCHOOL LIBRARY

Why selfish
use of books
is a serious
offense.

If a student hides a volume or takes away a book needed by others, it is easy to see how his carelessness or selfishness injures a whole group. Severe penalties are sometimes enforced against students who take books contrary to rules. If a book is required by members of a large class on a particular day, the removal of that book during that time is a serious offense. The fact that later a student returns such a book to the shelves does not make him less guilty. It has been stolen during the time that it was most needed.

98. Ways of Finding Books and Using Materials.—

Many students who would never dream of taking books for their own use, except as provided by the school rules, do not make proper use of them for reference. They have never learned how to find books in a library, a study in which they should have had some guidance and help.¹ After locating a book, they do not know how to find the material which they need. *Tables of contents* are unexplored areas to these novices, and *indexes* apparently exist for the purpose of using valuable paper. Teachers are compelled to give many students specific references not only for special assignments but also for all regular requirements. Such students have not learned to look up anything for themselves; they must be guided as the little child learning to walk needs to hold the hand of his nurse.

Every high school student should learn as soon as possible in his course how to locate books on the shelves, how to find material in books, and how to select things that he wants from the reference material that he has. In order to do this, a student must first know what he wants to find. He should have some idea of the kind of book in which he is likely to find it. To save time he should consult tables of contents and indexes. He should be able without difficulty to choose the material that belongs to the subject he is investigating, and he ought to be able to organize his material as he gathers it or as soon as he has secured the necessary facts. As stated above (§67), unless each student does this work for himself, and does it when it should be done, he may be guilty of cheat-

Learning
some
library
ways and
needs.

How a suc-
cessful
student
uses a
library.

¹ Most libraries use the Dewey system of classification. That system divides books as follows:

000-099	General works	500-599	Natural science
100-199	Philosophy	600-699	Useful arts
200-299	Religion	700-799	Fine arts
300-399	Sociology	800-899	Literature
400-499	Philology	900-999	History

ing. At least, he deprives himself of the growth and power which ought to be the chief object of education and the greatest ambition of every high school student.

What a debater must learn to do.

99. Debating.—Debating is especially valuable as a school activity because it puts into practice educational principles at the same time that it gives opportunity for competitive public effort. During the ten years that the writer served as a debating coach, many of his debaters were drawn from his own classes. If any of those students were asked to compare the training which they obtained in class with that which they secured when preparing a debate, they would probably say that they gained more from debating than through class work. In class the student is chiefly a follower; in debating he is likely to be a constructor. He must make his own outlines, gather most of his own material, organize his own facts in a logical way to prove his points, and learn to present his arguments forcefully and effectively. Most difficult of all, he must be prepared to refute promptly the arguments presented by his opponents.

Value of interest in debating.

An exceptional debater is as rare as an exceptional athlete, but good debaters are common. In every school there are five possible debaters for every one that attempts to make a team. There is no reason why in every school there should not be large squads of debaters, studying and gaining practice on many questions which should be discussed between classes or between schools. That debating can be made a vital school activity is proved by the fact that, during the writer's experience as coach, more students of his school attended debates than were present at football games. This was largely due to the fact that the school had two active, wide-awake debating societies.

100. School Publications.—Students can coöperate with the editors and managers of school papers in the

important task of securing material of interest to the school and of preparing accounts that can be used in the school paper. Even if three-quarters of these contributions never see print, those who undertake the work will be far more than repaid by the attempt. Especially is this true if all material that is worth criticising is examined and its merits or defects explained by someone competent to judge.¹

Value of contributions to a school paper.

The selection of editors and managers should be made in a democratic way, and should be placed upon a competitive basis. In some schools, publications are managed almost entirely by cliques, and an *editor-in-chief* selects his successor from one of his subordinates, without giving equal chances to others. Undoubtedly the best leaders are those who have been trained within the work. Few adults would be able to write editorials, direct the policy of a school paper, and make wise selection of material to be published. Work so important to the school ought to be given, therefore, to the person best qualified by experience, temperament, literary ability, and qualities of leadership. The assistants of an editor-in-chief ought also to be selected with very great care. The boy who holds the position of *business manager* on a school publication gains splendid experience, as his work brings him in contact with business men of the community.

Selection of editors and managers.

The school ought to value highly the work of the students who devote time and energy to school papers. Faculty and student body should encourage training for that work and should coöperate in every way possible, both in making contributions and in supporting the publications. School editors must remember that they are student representatives, responsible both to the

Interrelations of school and those in charge of publications.

¹If the school maintains a class in journalism, as a large number do, the teacher of journalism will naturally give his attention to the best material, and some of his more advanced students can examine the remainder, encouraging those reporters or contributors who show ability and giving them the help that is most needed.

student body and to the school authorities. Leadership must recognize its responsibilities. If the school has a newspaper, it is desirable that it be a real gazette of news, well prepared and edited, and worth the attention not only of students but of outsiders who may be interested in the school. If the school has a literary publication,



BOARD OF SCHOOL EDITORS AT WORK

the help of teachers should be enlisted in securing the best possible material. In their stories, our best school magazines compare rather favorably with some of the periodicals sold by the hundred thousand per month.

Exercises
and celebra-
tions given
by school.

101. Dramatics and Pageantry.—Leadership of one type may be developed through debating, oratory, and other forms of public speaking; leadership of another through publications; and leadership of a third type through dramatics and pageantry. At least a third of the American high schools have classes, student groups, or special committees in dramatics. Probably every high school in the United States has some dramatic readings or plays presented by students at some time during the year. These may be simply of the "Friday afternoon" order, chiefly recitations of miscellaneous poems. In

other words, there may be no unity to the material presented. Patriotic celebrations form a higher type of public speaking of a dramatic character because only one subject is considered. Exercises of this type usually include patriotic music and speaking by some distinguished citizen of the community, or possibly by a visitor.

When a school has a dramatic club, a class in oral English, or a class in dramatics, its work is likely to be superior to the impromptu performances given in other schools. One of the greatest needs of modern education is more stress upon oral English. All students ought to be taught to stand squarely on their feet before their fellows and deliver a message in a clear, direct, concise way. Even if the material is memorized, the experience in presentation is of high value. Possibly the literary clubs, which are found in almost all high schools, may be the means of filling this great educational need.

Most high schools give school plays. Possibly these are offered by the senior class as a part of the commencement program, even if presented much earlier in the year. Plays of this kind serve the double purpose of developing the talent of the class and of raising money for the school or for necessary expenses connected with graduation. Many schools place the net proceeds of entertainments and plays in a scholarship fund, which is used to aid students within the school or to help them continue their studies after graduation. Under proper direction, school plays or pageants are of the highest benefit in developing dramatic talent, in aiding school spirit, and in bringing the school closer to the community. The social value of school dramatics can hardly be overestimated.

102. The Honor Society.—In a large number of high schools, honor societies are found. In a number of others, rolls of honor are published and special privileges and opportunities are granted for unusual scholarship. If

Need of
training in
presenta-
tion of
material.

Character
and value
of school
plays.

Reasons
for honor
societies.

colleges give especial attention to electing graduates to membership in the Phi Beta Kappa society, there certainly is no reason why high schools should not treat with distinction students who do the best work within their schools. If a high school is an educational institution, it certainly should honor its best scholars.



SOME MEMBERS OF A HIGH SCHOOL HONOR SOCIETY

How members are chosen for honor societies.

Some high schools base membership in their honor societies solely upon scholarship; others combine scholarship with leadership. It is easier to make selection of students purely on a basis of standing than to determine the relative merit of those who have occupied some position of influence in student activities.¹ Membership is usually limited to those who have grades of at least ninety per cent, or of A or 1, in two or more subjects. A student who fails in any subject should be ineligible to an honor society.

¹ Those who give their time and effort for the good of the school ought to have concessions made to them either by having leadership counted as a basis for selection in the honor society or by having fewer subjects required for election to the honor society.

Honor societies usually have an emblem. One type of emblem is given to those who have made good grades for the preceding semester or year, but a special pin or badge may ordinarily be worn by any student who has been a member of the honor society of the school for five or six consecutive semesters. A *national honor society* has been proposed. Such an organization would tend to establish somewhat uniform requirements for honor students, or at least two different types of requirements. Honor societies have done much to raise the level of scholarship in our high schools.

Emblems.
Proposed
national
honor
society.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ACTIVITIES

103. Importance.—The two most important tasks of a student in high school are (a) to understand himself as a human being and (b) to understand his place as a citizen among his fellows. A high school should supplement the work of the grades by teaching the youth how to know himself better, how to understand his body and its processes, and how to make it a more perfect machine. The boy or girl needs to know *the principles underlying the human organism and its functions*. Many school courses touch upon this problem. Light is also thrown upon it by many topics that are considered in different classes. Nevertheless, it is highly desirable that, if possible, each high school student should take a course which gives him a knowledge of different types and classes of living organisms.¹ He needs to know something of the general structure of the human body, of life processes, of human anatomy, of physiology, and of hygiene.

Need of
systematic
study of
principles
of biology.

In his volume on education Herbert Spencer quotes with approval the remark, "the first requisite of life is

¹The student needs to learn something about cell life. In the study of lower animal organisms, he learns life processes which are common to all members of the organic world. This helps him to understand some of the problems and needs of human beings.

Need of physical health and endurance.

to be ‘a good animal.’” When one reads the biographies of great men, one realizes how severe a strain the work of the successful captain of industry or statesman places upon his body. In most cases, only those of fine physique have successfully stood the strain of high position. That distinguished American, Theodore Roosevelt, started life with a frail body, but built it up by well selected exercises, by out-of-door life, and by endurance of hardships. When he was president, he made the rule that every high army officer who wished to retain his rank should be able to ride a total of ninety miles in three consecutive days. Some of the army men objected to this ruling; Roosevelt overruled the objection. His own time was so fully taken up that he could not give three separate days to the exercise. He started out, therefore, with one companion to make the entire trip in one day. In the midst of a driving storm he and his aide rode the entire distance.

Need of combining work and exercise.

Failure is frequently physical failure, and physical failure is due no more to poor heredity than to lack of proper physical education and training. Many men have died from overwork who might have carried the same amount of work if they had combined with their intellectual or business occupation the proper amount and right kind of exercise.

Need of mental and emotional control, that is, development of character.

A successful man or woman needs a good body, a mind that has a sane outlook on life, and exercise as well as work to keep both in proper condition. As Shakespeare says, “‘Tis the mind that makes the body rich.” No truer saying was ever uttered than this, “As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he,” because we can not separate the body from the mind or from the emotions that go with the mind, nor can we separate any of them from character. The first element of character is negative, a matter of self-control. Emotions and thoughts

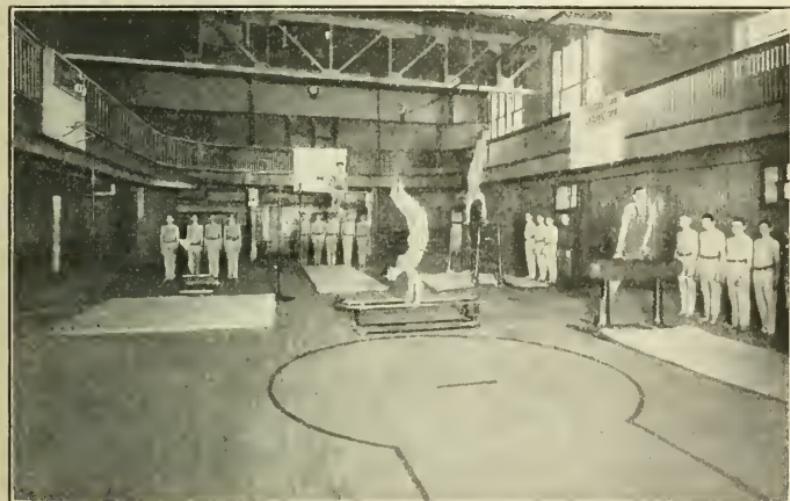
must be controlled if the body is to be healthy and life successful.

The most important of all arts, that of *right living*, and the most difficult of all types of youthful training, sex education and eugenics, are after all matters of character rather than of physical education.

104. Regular School Requirements in Physical Education.—Most schools have classes in physical education. During the war much of this work for girls as well as boys

Right living,
sex
education,
and
eugenics.

Undevel-
oped char-
acter of
the work.



A SCHOOL GYMNASIUM

was carried on through military organizations. Probably few schools make a careful study of the physical condition, needs, and problems of everyone of their students or have developed their courses in physical education as fully as were the classical courses of a high school a quarter of a century ago. This great branch of education is yet in its infancy.

In the grades physical exercises are usually given within the classroom at some time during the day, as a change from the continuous and fairly strenuous work with books.

Calisthenics
and play in
the grades.

It is probable that the play activities naturally undertaken by the students on the playground at recess are more valuable as physical education than the formal exercise taken in school. However, the two should be combined.

Value of regular formal exercises.

By formal exercises we gain a general all-around development with particular advantage to the important and largest part of the body, the trunk. Good breathing exercises are invaluable, and exercises for the larger muscles are necessary if one is to keep in health. As few students as possible should be excused from physical training. Exceptional students should be studied very carefully by experts, and whenever possible, reports of physical directors, of school doctors, and of family physicians should be brought together to gain the most complete knowledge possible and to work out exercises needed by that individual. Students should be encouraged to supplement this exercise by some of their own taken daily. If we expect to live well, we should exercise daily as well as eat.

Need of "individual" and of "social games."

105. Play Activities and Home Work.—Play should be taught. Such a statement causes astonishment among young people; but, as already indicated at the beginning of Chapter V, play is one of the most important activities of life. Play ought to be taught as both a personal and a social function. It should be personal because the individual should be able to play with but one other, since frequently it is impossible to have more than one companion on walks or in games such as tennis or volleyball. Social games should also be taught. Most of us should know how to play such games as baseball, basketball, or hockey, because adults who do not know how to play a game may not bother to learn it. This is especially true of girls, some of whom discard games and outdoor exercise when they do up their hair.

Girls more than boys need coöperative activities. They need to work and play with others, in order to understand how people work or play together, and how each must subordinate some personal preference to the general good. Unless we round off our sharp corners, we are apt to injure those whom we encounter. *Fair play, a just consideration for others, and willingness to take punishment are valuable results of coöperative play.*

Some valuable lessons of cooperative play.

The best physical exercise may be secured in the home, if the home is a separate house with its own garden. Work out-of-doors is of infinite value from many angles. Easy and attractive household or garden duties are helpful to the family and worth while to the worker. If a boy or girl undertakes these duties in a spirit of complaint, he loses one of his finest opportunities. Caring for lawns and flowers, cleaning carpets and bric-a-brac, cooking, and even dish washing have their charm, if approached in the right spirit. The person who tries to have the greenest lawn, or the finest roses, or the tastiest meal is conferring a civic benefit, as well as gaining helpful exercise for himself.

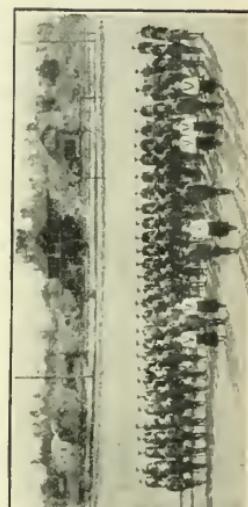
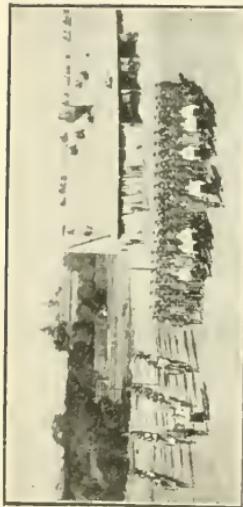
Desirable and helpful home activities.

106. Military Organization.—Before the United States entered the war with Germany, the boys of high schools began to form military companies. Usually these were student organizations which continued during the war and afterward. These organizations were encouraged by state law for all students, and in some states were required for boys.

General military regulations.

On all days when drill was given, boys and girls ordinarily wore inexpensive uniforms. As important as the training was the social value of a single type of dress, thus preventing competition between girls who could afford little and those who could wear a dozen different and rather expensive dresses in the course of a term. In schools that had companies of girls and companies of

Uniforms and uniform dress.



R. O. T. C. OF A WESTERN HIGH SCHOOL

boys, the honors on parade went quite as frequently to the girls as to the boys.

At the close of the war, high schools were encouraged to organize military companies under the immediate supervision of officers of the American army. This organization has been known as the R. O. T. C., Reserve Officers' Training Corps. To each school was detailed one or more army officers in active service, usually of the rank of captain or higher. In addition, there might be sergeants of the regular army. Uniforms, guns, and other necessary equipment were furnished to the students.¹ The training really deserves to be called military education. *From a purely disciplinary point of view, this R. O. T. C. organization has been of inestimable benefit* because it has given the students an insight into the meaning of obedience, the nature of true discipline, and the value of well organized, prompt service.

Most military companies, whether under the supervision of the national government or not, are directly managed by student officers. After being organized into companies, the members are allowed to choose their own captains, lieutenants, and other officers. Battalions of students select their own colonels, subject to the approval of the school and of military authorities. It has thus been possible to combine democratic procedure with military organization. The officers have had special training in leadership as well as in tactics. The development and exercise of leadership has been of the very highest value to those students who have proved themselves capable and worthy.

107. Importance of School Athletics.—Physical development in school is closely associated with athletic contests. At least half of the boys in school should find some

¹ Students who entered the R. O. T. C. did so for a minimum period of two years. They were obliged to exercise on an average three hours per week. Instruction was given in tactics and in practical exercises.

Nature and
value of
R. O. T. C.
training.

Value of
military
organization
to
student
officers.

Ways in
which
athletics
are valua-
ble.

particular form of athletics that makes a strong appeal to them. Possibly few boys can excel in competition, but the fact that large numbers are in the field, doing their level best and striving for something better, prepares the exceptional athlete for severe competition and is good for the school. If students do not overtrain, *practically all forms of athletic competition are valuable.* Competition gives physical training to the individual, promotes school spirit, and develops better ideas of coöperation. It is a noticeable fact that most of the criticism of athletes and teams comes from those who never make the slightest effort on the preparatory field. Success is good for a school, but keeping up the right spirit in defeat is even better training for school character.

Undoubtedly athletic contests are among the most interesting and distinctive of all student activities. Our schools would attract and hold fewer boys than they do now if it were not for the sports. A school that specializes in athletics, however, and finds most of its leaders and its heroes on the athletic field, is losing sight of its true work and purpose. *Athletics should exist for the school and the students, not the school and the students for athletics.*

108. Athletic Contests.—During the fall term, almost every high school specializes in football. The members of the school are proud of the men who form their eleven and who devote hours of practice daily to learning the game and upholding the prestige and honor of the institution. Probably some students get more education out of their football practice than they do out of any two subjects. Certainly their experience in teamwork is of the highest possible value. Their willingness to make personal sacrifice for the sake of the whole group shows the kind of spirit that would make school great if applied in any one of a dozen ways instead of in just one activity. During the World War some of the best of our

Athletics
and the
school.

Football
and team-
work.

minor military officers were former football men or coaches. The good showing of American soldiers "over there" was attributed largely to their training on the gridiron or in other severe athletic contests.

For coöperation there is no high school sport superior to baseball. Every individual must be specially trained for a particular type of work. He must work with other members of the nine, must learn to be quick, efficient, and intelligent. In no other American game does the lack of intelligence show more quickly than on the baseball diamond.¹ Basketball, soccer, hockey, and other coöperative games should be encouraged. In addition to the regular and second teams in these activities, a large number of students should be urged to take part for their own sake and for the sake of the school.

Baseball
and co-
operation.

School spirit is usually developed in connection with football. But in the spring, track meets should bring out hundreds of rooters and should arouse the greatest enthusiasm. Track activities are so varied that almost any school, however small, ought to be able to develop four or five men who can "place" in some contest. In a track meet in which a large number of schools take part, first and second honors are likely to go to that school whose men win first places; but, in ordinary contests, the school that has more than its share of boys in second and third positions will probably carry off the honors of the day. Preparation of athletes for track contests should interest a large percentage of high school students and should be a splendid form of physical education.

Track team
and school
spirit.

OTHER SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

109. Music.—Someone has said, "I care not who makes the laws of a nation, provided I can write its songs." When Napoleon was a long way from home on

The place
of music
in life.

¹The term "bone-head play" is closely associated with the diamond.

one of his most severe campaigns, he ordered his bands not to play any music that reminded the soldiers of home. In the past the martial strains of fife and drum and the stirring call of bugle would cheer the hearts and rouse the spirit of men about to charge an enemy. One of Napoleon's greatest victories is usually credited to the "drummer boy of Lodi."

General
musical
gatherings.

Most schools that have daily assemblies have some music of a patriotic, if not of a military character. Is there any reason why patriotic music should not make a peace appeal rather than sound a clarion call of war? Allied to musical assemblies is *community singing*, which is frequently led by a musical director of a high school, and for which some of the best trained singers are high school students. As community singing frequently takes place in the school auditorium, used as a social center (§ 299), it is in a true sense a school interest and activity.

Musical or-
ganizations
—vocal and
instrumen-
tal.

Many schools have a separate course in music.¹ Even in small schools there are some musical organizations. The majority undoubtedly have choruses, glee clubs, and quartets, even if there is no teacher to train and direct such bodies. Instrumental music is not neglected by schools even if lessons are not given for piano or other musical instruments. Many schools have bands and a considerable number orchestras, besides clubs whose members play instruments such as the ukelele or the mandolin. Certainly our schools ought to train their students as much as possible in music and set for them high musical standards. An appreciation of good music is a most precious and lasting asset.

Commercial
and science
clubs.

110. Departmental and Technical Clubs.—In some schools there are departmental organizations. Prominent

¹ Some schools even go so far as to give credit for musical training secured outside of school. In this way, they lighten the burden of those girls and boys who are compelled to devote several hours a day to practice.

among these are Junior Chambers of Commerce, sometimes combined with Civic Associations, modeled after the Chamber of Commerce of the city. Officers are elected, meetings are held, and commercial or industrial problems are examined much as they are by the larger organization, although on a smaller scale. *The excursion* is one of the methods used by the clubs or classes in the Commercial, Science, or other departments, for the purpose of studying industrial, economic, or physiographic conditions either in the community or outside.

Among the groups of a more or less technical nature found in different schools are forestry clubs, which not only take trips, but help the people of the vicinity to understand problems of reforestation. Camera clubs are sometimes combined with hiking groups. In some schools there are wireless clubs, radio organizations, and engineering clubs, in addition to others particularly adapted to the school or to the community. The foreign language groups not only study a language in some of its most interesting aspects, but frequently give plays or pageants of other lands or of other times. Any activity which meets a real need, and which interests students without interfering too much with the most necessary work, tends to develop individuals and to quicken school spirit.

In some schools there are civics clubs. Usually membership is limited to those who are studying civics, but there is no reason why other public-spirited students may not be admitted. Through the club, it is possible for classes in civics or citizenship to be brought into closer touch with the community and to keep better informed upon civic changes within the city, state, and nation. Although prominent citizens or distinguished visitors should not be expected to address a single class in civics, they are often glad of the opportunity to speak before a large club

Other de-
partmental
or technical
groups.

Nature and
advantages
of civics
clubs.

interested in distinctively civic affairs. A civics club can be made the focus of many social service activities and patriotic undertakings.

Variety of purpose in student organizations.

111. Social Service Organizations—General.—Clubs, associations, and leagues formed within the school ought to be organized largely for the general good. Some of them, however, are rather selfish in character and seek chiefly to interest and amuse the members. Most of those which have been mentioned are chiefly for the purpose of training, for the formation of finer character, and for the development of social graces and abilities.

Some needs of a many-sided man.

All of us are many-sided. We need to be entertained. In fact, we pay a very high price for entertainment. We also need development of an educational character. This we obtain in part from plays, books, and lectures. In order to be well-rounded, a man or woman must have interest in his or her fellow beings. We need to know what others are doing, what problems others have, what they feel and think, and how we can help them.

Boys' service organizations.

There exist in every school some organizations that deserve to be called social service organizations, although usually they are not philanthropic clubs. The development secured by their members is at least equal to that given in any other student activity. The Boy Scouts are not organized primarily as school associations, but they furnish a fine example of an organization, made up chiefly of pupils, that aims to combine welfare work with activities for the personal and social development of the members. The Hi-Y clubs, composed of high school students in the Y. M. C. A., usually reach boys older than those in the Boy Scouts.

Value of social service to public and doer.

Thrift associations, "swat the fly" clubs, student clubs in which members look after interests and activities needed within the community are but a very few of the student groups working for others. The one who does

this fine type of work is as much benefited by it as the person he helps.

"Not what we give, but what we share,
For the gift without the giver is bare;
Who gives himself with his alms feeds three,
Himself, his hungering neighbor, and Me."

112. Girls' Leagues.—In many of our schools, Girls' Leagues have been organized. The work of these leagues is usually in a true sense social service. In some schools, the senior girls meet the incoming freshmen, take them about the buildings, find their classrooms, and explain to them some of the many things that a freshman needs to know upon entering, and that are particularly bewildering to the timid student. In some cases the senior sister continues to look after the freshman throughout the year. Lasting friendships are sometimes formed in this way. This work is good for the older girl, and much needed by the younger.

Work of
the senior
sisters.

Groups or committees of a Girls' League may look after different public welfare interests. Among these are clean grounds, more nutritious food in cafeterias, better balanced meals for students who have a selection of a wide variety of foods, entertainments for little tots from children's homes, and the collection of that part of the lunch which is not used by students, for distribution in homes or in schools where the need is great. Penny lunchees provided by school authorities or by public-spirited citizens are sometimes managed by officers or students of such an organization.

Numerous
activities
of Girls'
Leagues.

113. Conclusion.—It is impossible for all schools to have the same student organizations. Every school must consider its own needs, and provide what it especially requires. Any school of moderate size which should

Limitations
to the num-
ber of stu-
dent organ-
izations in
any school.

attempt to meet all of the interests and undertake all of the activities mentioned in this volume would fail because it would scatter its fire, if for no other reason. A school worth while is a school that does not attempt too much, but does well what it attempts.¹

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Questions

1. How are books arranged in the library? Explain how each of the following will help a student in the use of a library: (a) specific references given in textbook or offered by teacher, (b) knowledge of classification of library books, (c) ability to use tables of contents and indexes. Explain educational processes that can and should be developed in a library. Do you understand why universities have expelled students who have hidden or taken library books to which a large class has been referred?

2. In the halls, in the lunch rooms, and on the grounds, what can a public-spirited school citizen do for the good of the school and for his fellows? Show how selfishness or disobedience of rules on the part of one student injures all students.

3. Show why the debater must understand how to use a library very well. Explain the process that a debater must use if he is to organize debate material properly. What school publications are there in this school, and what is the purpose of each? Tell who is editor-in-chief and who is manager of each. Name at least two of the assistant editors or reporters. Of what value is a rejected manuscript? Why should stress be placed on oral English in high schools? Name three types of plays or exercises and show the value of each to the school and to the participants.

4. What is an honor society? Is there one in this school? If so, is membership based upon scholarship alone? What are the scholarship requirements?

5. What are the two most important tasks of any high school student? How is a student to gain knowledge of the principles underlying the human body and its functions? Why is it desirable to study unicellular animals and low animal organisms? Why may life failure be chiefly physical failure? How might the danger of such failure be avoided? Show how character is a composite of many qualities. Why is right living the most difficult of all arts? What is the importance of eugenics to young people and society?

6. What work is given in physical education in the grades of this city, and what work is given in the high school? Why should every student have the privilege of a careful physical examination? Are play activities undertaken under school supervision? If so, what do they include and what is the purpose of each game? What are the chief social advantages of games? Are games of greater social value to girls than to boys? If so, why?

7. What types of military organization have been used in this

school? Which are in use now? Do the students who take military drill wear uniforms? What is the R. O. T. C.? Explain its relation to a school and to the national government. How are the officers of the military companies chosen in this school? How successful has the ordinary student officer been? Is military training chiefly valuable as preparation for possible war?

8. Name several ways in which athletics are valuable. How is school spirit aided by athletic contests? Make a calendar of the year showing what months or weeks are given to different athletic activities. Show how football tends to develop teamwork. For what kind of coöperation is baseball particularly adapted? In this school is there any problem of persuading students to take part in track or other athletic contests?

9. On the board, draw a diagram to represent our football team at the beginning of one of our own plays. Who has the ball? What is the position of the "line"? Who make up the back field? Indicate on the board the name representing each position for a typical play. When our opponents have the ball, what is likely to be the position of each man on our team?

10. When did you last attend a musical assembly? Is there community singing in this locality? If so, who is the leader, where are the meetings held, and of what value to the community has it been? In this school what vocal musical organizations are there? Instrumental music is given by what different groups?

11. Name two different departmental associations in this school. If there is a Junior Chamber of Commerce, describe it and its work. Give the names of at least three other clubs connected with this institution. For each group explain purpose, membership, dues, time of meetings, and, if possible, achievements.

12. What do you mean by social service? Why should every person try to do some social service every day? Do tasks which we are requested to perform seem commonplace because we have become too accustomed to them or because we are following selfish ideals? Explain three needs of human nature. Name a social service that could be rendered in helping others satisfy each of those needs. Do you belong to a social service group? If so, what does it try to do? What is a Girls' League? What is done by the senior sister for her freshman protégé? Is there a Boys' League in this school?

CHAPTER X

THE PROBLEM OF THE SCHOOL COURSE

1. Requirements in school courses
 - a. Requirements for graduation
 - b. Grouping of subjects in courses of study
 - c. Selection of courses
 - (1) Selection of majors
 - (2) Selection of minors
 - (3) Elective subjects
2. Advantages of different subjects
 - a. The problem of preparation for college
 - b. Comparative value of subjects
 - (1) Preparation for life
 - (2) Preparation for earning a living
 - (3) Memory and discipline
 - (4) Motives and goals
 - (5) The mother tongue
 - (6) Importance of scientific training

REQUIREMENTS IN SCHOOL COURSES

114. Requirements for Graduation.—If a person were to obtain copies of courses of study in the larger high schools of the United States, he would have an interesting collection. He would find some similarities and many differences. Practically all provide four year courses; most arrange that each year students shall take four subjects five times a week, and therefore at least sixteen subjects (sixteen units of one year each) are required for graduation. If, however, many subjects are given only four times a week, as happens in a large number of schools, a larger number of units or year subjects must be completed before graduation. If the ordinary subject is given only two or three times a week, as is the case in some

Length of
course and
units for
graduation.

eastern high schools, a different system of measuring units must be used.

Uniform requirements of all graduates in many high schools.

Schools do not allow students to graduate with *any* sixteen credits. Ordinarily there are certain minimum requirements which every graduate must complete. The number varies in different schools. For example, all graduates of the high schools in New York City are obliged to have three years of English, one year of European History, one year of American History and Civics, one-half year of Economies, and two units of Physical Training, Drawing, and Music. The high schools of Pennsylvania require of all graduates three and one-half years of English and three and one-half years of history and other social science, in addition to health instruction throughout the four years. The California course has already been described (§58). More than a third of the high school graduates of the United States complete one of these three typical courses or one that is similar.

Arrangement of subjects as majors and minors.

115. Grouping of Subjects in Courses of Study.—Probably one-half of the high school students in this country are now arranging their courses according to a fairly definite plan of majors and minors. Whether the number of courses offered by a high school using this plan is large or small, every student is obliged to pursue one subject for at least three and possibly for four years, and to take at least two years of each of two other subjects. Usually the *major subject* is the one in which he is especially interested. Each of the other subjects, which may be called *minors*, are closely connected with the major. For example, if the student majors in English, he is likely to be urged or obliged to select, as his two minors, history and a foreign language. A student who majors in science will probably make mathematics one of his minors.

The Chicago course of study is typical of many. It provides for "(a) three years of one line of work classed as a major, for which full credit is given for each of the respective years; * * * (b) two years of a second line of work classed as a minor, for which full credit is given for each of the respective years; * * * and (c) two years of another line of work classed as a second minor, for which full credit is given for each of the respective years."

The Chicago plan.

116. Selection of Courses—The Major Subject.—A boy or girl who enters a high school is expected to choose a course at once. Frequently a freshman selects a course because a friend chooses the same, or because he has had a grade teacher whom he liked in that subject. It is desirable that, before the selection is made, each freshman examine several courses, consult friends, and talk the matter over with parents and former teachers. If he can find work that meets his own particular preferences and tastes better than any other, he is fortunate. The work of the first year is usually prescribed, and in most academic courses the subjects are the same. A student who selects English as his major may usually change into a language course at the end of his first year without loss of credits.

Good reasons for selection of a course.

There is no good reason why a student should delay making his final choice of a course until his third or even his second year. If he does, he is likely to have two, three, or four credits which may not fit into his new course and which therefore must be sacrificed. Under those circumstances, a student will be obliged either to carry one or two additional subjects during each of his later school years or to attend summer school at least two summers.

Problem of the student who changes his course late in his high school career.

117. Selection of Courses—Minor Subjects.—A student should not only be certain that the major subject of his course is the one which he particularly desires, but he should notice carefully the minor subjects also. Minors

Need of selecting minor subjects almost as carefully as majors.

should not be placed in courses arbitrarily either by faculty or students, but should be chosen because they naturally belong with the major. For most students they are probably the most interesting subjects that could be selected; but, if prescribed by the school, they may not be the subjects that everyone is able to study to advantage.

Minors and
other sub-
jects that
are pre-
scribed.

It is wise for a pupil to give at least half his time and possibly more than half his effort in his high school course to these few subjects which supplement each other. Undoubtedly there will be others that he needs for his own benefit at the time or as preparation for future work. Some of these may be required by the school or by the department in which he majors. The rest will depend upon his own interests and preferences, and he must therefore make his choice for himself.

Helps in
choosing
elective
subjects.

118. Elective Subjects.—A student needs to give particular thought and care to the selection of electives. Occasionally a pupil will ask himself the question: "What subject will give me the most credit with the least work?" It is doubtful whether many high school students choose electives because they are "snap" courses. The average student probably selects his optional subjects because of his own special interest in the fields they represent. He wants to satisfy personal desires other than those filled by his required courses. If he has selected a particular college whose entrance requirements are rigid, however, his choice of electives will be exceedingly limited, and he may have little opportunity to satisfy his particular bent.

Why elec-
tives must
be well
chosen.

Is not this a good rule? Never select a course or any elective subject without the greatest care. Modern society calls for trained people, and, although the race may not be to the swift, competition is severe. A student who graduates from high school with a hodge-podge of

materials or a dozen kinds of training is handicapped from the day he begins. There is absolutely no reason why any student should thus start at a disadvantage.

ADVANTAGES OF DIFFERENT SUBJECTS

119. The Problem of Preparation for College.—Many schools inform entering students that some subjects are excellent as preparation for college, whereas others are not. Many schools ask new students: "Do you intend to go to college?" It is probable that most freshmen do

Value of early decision regarding college and a good course.



Photo by Field Photographic Service

ALGEBRA PLAY, PASADENA HIGH SCHOOL
PASADENA, CALIFORNIA

not know very much about a college course that might be desirable, although some boys and girls may have already selected the institution, as well as the course to be pursued.

If it is probable that you will go to college, do not wait until your senior year to become acquainted with college entrance requirements. Make sure that your high school course will prepare you not only for college but for a definite type of college course.

If this school is accredited, that is, if it is one whose graduates may enter certain colleges without examination, do one other thing. Make a good grade in prac-

Need of studying college entrance requirements.

Why a student can not afford to get poor grades in any subject.

The comparative method of studying occupations and abilities.

tically every one of your high school subjects.¹ If a student takes only sixteen regular units for graduation, and college demands high grades in fifteen,² many of them specified subjects, it can easily be seen that he can not afford to do poor or indifferent work in any subject whatsoever. Many high school students are careless for the first year or two: it does not pay.³

120. Value of Subjects as Preparation for Life.—In determining the value of any particular course and of any special subject, it may be well to consider the following questions: (a) Does this subject prepare me well for life work? (b) Is it better than any other subject for that purpose? (c) For what reasons and in what ways does it make a good preparatory subject in connection with the life work which I think I shall undertake? In order to answer these questions, it is necessary to study different types of vocations⁴ and also to have some standards of comparison. These standards can best be secured by studying the essentials of several occupations, comparing the qualities, personal or professional, which are most valuable in them. It is well to study also the type of work that is done in each, and the different subjects that should be studied as preparation for each. Just as we can study light by comparing it with shadow, or beauty by observing ugliness,

¹ Sometimes a college permits any regular graduates of certain high schools to enter its doors; but those students may not be allowed to *continue* certain subjects unless they have had the high school subjects which are prerequisite to those college courses, or unless the high school student has done especially good work in certain preparatory subjects.

² Some colleges will not admit students on credits, unless *they have made especially good grades in subjects which will be good for college preparatory work*. Usually college entrance subjects must be of the older type of college preparatory work. Students who wish to enter college may not be allowed to offer more than a few vocational subjects, such as bookkeeping, woodshop, or cooking.

³ Probably a quarter of all high school graduates find, when they wish to go to college, that they have only eight or ten subjects in which they have recommended grades. To secure a sufficient number of recommended marks and to enter without "conditions," they are ready to move heaven and earth.

⁴ See Chapter XI.

so we may get our best idea of certain occupations, and the preparations desirable for them, by contrast.

An individual is not simply a professional worker or business man. He is, first of all, a human being and a citizen. Whether he is a lawyer or a physician, a plumber or a carpenter, a seller of books or a dealer in groceries, *he wants first of all to be a man.* In selecting his course and in choosing particular subjects, he must keep in mind, therefore, *the necessity for understanding himself* (§103), *his environment, and the complicated organization of society in which he finds himself.* He must understand government, because all of us live under governments and must obey their rules, even if we do not contribute to their support. He must understand the organization of business and the principles underlying business activities. He must understand the social organization¹ of the people of this country.

121. Preparation for Earning a Living.—The schools should prepare us to earn a living as well as teach us how to live, because sooner or later most of us must support ourselves. The high school should help us understand for what occupation we are best fitted (§136-141) and should allow no young man or woman to leave without a fairly definite idea of doing something and doing it well. Whether we are obliged to do so or not, we ought to be prepared for some work which will give us a money return. Even children of wealthy parents may be thrown upon their own resources and be compelled to earn their daily bread. Home ties or broken health may prevent us from following our vocation, but a busy democracy should have no place for a drone.

A public-spirited citizen must find some work in the

¹ People are organized in nations and in families, which are after all social groups. They prepare themselves for their social and other civic duties in distinctively social institutions which we call schools.

What every educated person must know

Why all must be prepared for life work.

Work that
is worth
while be-
cause it is
our own.

world well worth doing; he must try to do it better than anyone else. This vocation may bring in no money returns, because it may be connected with home duties, with public service, or with charitable work, for which no compensation is given. Although many of these tasks



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seem commonplace, they are among the noblest in existence. In the words of Henry Van Dyke:

“Let me but do my work from day to day,
In field or forest, at the desk or loom,
In roaring market-place or tranquil room;
Let me but find it in my heart to say,
When vagrant wishes beckon me astray,
‘This is my work; my blessing, not my doom;
‘Of all who live, I am the one by whom
‘This work can best be done in the right way.’ ”

Need and
value of
memory
training.

122. Memory and Discipline.—When our grandfathers and grandmothers went to school, they memorized large parts of their textbooks. They knew how to spell well because their memories were well trained. Whatever else

their education lacked, they had developed their power to recall words, facts, and statements. Modern training is different. We have little drill in memory work,¹ yet we need a large amount of material on many subjects. In some cases we do not wish to carry that material with us and need therefore only to know how and where we can find it. Many students do not even remember where they can get the information they need and do not know how to find it when they are told where it is.

The older education was noted for its *mental discipline*. A great many subjects were taken not because they were of any special value in themselves but because they trained the mind well. The newer psychology stresses the fact that methods and discipline acquired in one subject can not easily be transferred to another. Hence mental training does not come chiefly from a certain type of subject, but can be gained as well from one subject as from another. Yet all of us need a certain amount of work in subjects which are very definite but not easy. With their help we can discipline our minds because we must do thorough work and know positively whether we have done the work or not.

123. Motives and Goals.—Possibly the world's best work is due to the *interest* of the worker. A student who is unwilling to spend more than a half hour on the daily preparation of any one of his regular lessons will sometimes devote to a hobby several hours a day. If the work of the school can be made sufficiently interesting, there is no reason why boys and girls should not only wish to continue as long as possible, but also put into their work more effort and very much more time than have boys and girls in the past. For the intermediate and high school years, modern education undoubtedly is far more interest-

Why certain subjects are especially valuable for mental discipline.

Value of interest in education.

¹ Memory developed in one subject can not be "carried over" into another, but the *power of recall* can be developed as a *habit*, a very valuable asset to any scholar or man of business.

ing than that of a generation ago. There is no reason, however, why it should not be made still more live and more vital. We learn by doing, and if there were larger opportunities for action within the classroom, and if more depended upon what each of us did, we should probably be willing to give more attention and effort to our school subjects.¹

Necessary
stepping
stones to
higher type
of work.

We need a motive such as interest; we also need a purpose. If one wishes to follow a straight and direct path, it is necessary for him to have not only a goal, but also some nearby mark which he can watch continually on his way. Otherwise he wanders far afield. To reach an educational goal, many preliminary subjects are usually necessary, because one must have a knowledge of elementary work before taking that which is more difficult. A student who expects to specialize in mechanics can not neglect either mathematics or physics. A scholar who intends to make himself master of applied science will probably need to know at least two modern languages. A physician who has ignored preliminary work in chemistry is likely to be as much of a failure as a lawyer who knows no history.

Importance
of good
English.

124. The Mother Tongue.—No man is educated unless he uses good English. The mastery of the mother tongue is a life task worthy of any student. Little by little one ought to become acquainted with correct usage, because the best is none too good. If we limit our study of English to work in English classes, we shall make little progress. If we want good usage, we must acquire it by using it, and by using nothing else. English is especially important from the social point of view. Without the medium of a common language, it would be impossible for any number of people to live together successfully.

¹In his "Educational Essays," John Dewey devotes the second essay, which is full of suggestion, to the subject "Interest in its Relation to Training of the Will."

Through words men communicate with one another, making known their needs, wants, and problems. Without words, moreover, we find it impossible to formulate our ideas and develop them, in short, to think.

Words must not be neglected. Unless we know the meaning of words, we do not understand books or the talk of educated folk.¹ If we are afraid of grammatical forms, unwilling to study rules of rhetoric, unable to construct good sentences, we proclaim our ignorance and shut ourselves out from the larger world of thinking people. *English composition* is therefore one of the important high school subjects. A boy who may give little attention to an essay on some subject selected by his teacher will grow eloquent in describing his feats with wireless, or his successes in shop, or his experiments in his own laboratory. If we have something to say, we want to be able to say it, and to say it effectively.²

One might think that an engineer need not be particular about his English, either oral or written. Let a single example suffice. A distinguished engineer needed an assistant. All applications were made in writing. From these the expert selected one hundred and asked for a second application, also in writing. From these a few were chosen, and the place was filled after personal consultation. There is no business proposition, no place in the world in which a person does not need to say exactly what he means.

125. Importance of Scientific Training.—Education of the nineteenth century is distinguished from education of earlier centuries largely by its stress upon science and scientific methods. The mechanical achievements of the wonderful nineteenth century were largely in the field of

Elements
and value
of English
composition.

Value of
good
English in
business.

Knowledge
of science
and
scientific
methods.

¹ Unless we really know words, something of their history and inner meaning, unless we can distinguish synonym from synonym, we are but half living a life whose meanings are expressed in words.

² "Have something to say, and say it" was the Duke of Wellington's theory of style.

applied science. Educational advance has come chiefly through the remarkable increase in our comprehension of the marvels of nature and in the application of scientific methods of study not only to men and natural phenomena of animate and inanimate nature but also to the social world and to the world of business. Every student should have some experimental work in science, in order that he may gain insight into scientific methods of research.

Many students sought to have, as a scientific basis of later education, correlated work in the three foundation sciences of biology, physics, and chemistry. Experience will introduce us to scientific methods, but we need to follow the guidance of others and have



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HIGH SCHOOL, INDIANAPOLIS,
INDIANA

some knowledge of the underlying principles which science has disclosed as the bases of living things and of natural processes.

A well rounded education needs to combine several of the different subjects, interests, or methods explained in the preceding paragraphs. As Professor Giddings says, "*An educated man is one who knows something of everything and everything of something.*" A high school graduate should not be a specialist, but he should know what it means to specialize, and to have done a little in that

direction. He can not be an all-around man; but he should at least have *the elements of a well rounded education*, with some work that is practical, some that is disciplinary, some that is cultural, and much that develops him as a man and as a citizen.

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Questions

1. How many units must be taken for graduation in this school? What are the minimum requirements of each graduate? How do they compare with the requirements for graduation from other schools of which you have knowledge? What is a major subject? What is a minor? Are you registered in any course? If so, what is it called? If it has a major, what is the subject? Name any other subjects which you will take for at least two years before graduation.

2. When should a high school course be selected by a student? If one is in a junior high school, when should he select his high school course? What courses of this school are practically interchangeable at the end of the first year? How should one select a major subject? What attention should be paid to minor subjects if the school combines minor subjects with major subjects in its

*Primarily for teachers.

courses? What is an elective? Name reasons why one should have at least two different types of electives before graduation.

3. How many units are required for college entrance? Does the nearest large college prescribe what these subjects shall be? If so, what are they? Study the college requirements of at least one other college which you might be interested to enter. Is this school accredited by any college? What grade is required before a credit may be used in college entrance? In how many high school subjects can a student who wishes to go to college afford to get low passing grades?

4. Name at least two qualifications that each subject should have as preparation for other things than college. What is the difference between making a living and making a life?

5. What is memory? If one has developed a good memory in one line, how valuable is that memory for another subject? What do you understand by mental discipline? What is the value of mental discipline?

6. How does interest compare with other motives you can mention? Show that we "learn by doing." Why is it desirable that we treat the material of many school subjects as problems? Why should we learn to state as well as solve problems? How can we test our solutions to discover whether they are real solutions? What kind of goal should we have in education? If we change our goal, how useful are we likely to find (a) the material that we gathered on the way to the other goal and (b) the methods and habits already developed?

7. Why is a knowledge of the mother tongue necessary to a person of culture? In the history of the human race, what has been the social value of language? What do you understand by a synonym? Why should a technical man know much about English? To what extent is clearness of thought dependent upon clearness of expression?

8. What is meant by applied science? What are scientific methods of research? What is a laboratory science? Have some one explain to you how the three sciences of biology, physics, and chemistry are interrelated. Why will they give you "some knowledge of the underlying principles which science has disclosed as the bases of living things and of natural processes?" According to Professor Giddings, who is an educated man? Name two or more elements of a well rounded education.

PART IV
THE CITIZEN AND BUSINESS



CHAPTER XI

THE SELECTION OF A VOCATION

General

1. Knowledge of occupations
 - a. "Blind alley" occupations
 - b. Local and national importance of each industry
 - c. Probable future of occupations
 - d. Opportunities for beginners and for advancement
 - e. Regularity of work and income
 - f. Hours of work
 - g. Other conditions of work
 - h. Relations with the public
 - i. Opportunities for those who become enterprisers
2. Qualities desirable in different occupations
 - a. Work requiring brawn
 - b. Mechanical skill
 - c. Deftness and alertness
 - d. Inventiveness and resourcefulness
 - e. Advanced professional preparation
 - f. Ability in addressing or handling men

126. General.—In order that a school should prepare its students for life work, it is important, if not necessary, that it give them *some knowledge* (1) of *occupations and* (2) of *the qualities necessary or desirable in different voca-*
tions. Some school courses, such as those in book-keeping or agriculture, are really practical. A student who has taken one of these subjects will be fairly well fitted to begin some life work.

What the
school owes
in prepara-
tion for life
work.

In preparing to enter an industry, one must not be content simply to learn the facts about that occupation. It is far easier to study the different processes used in any industry than it is to find and take school courses which

Learning
industrial
processes
vs. real
preparation.

will be good preparation for that occupation. A person might memorize a great many facts regarding the way work is done in a cotton mill, or a shoe factory, or a steel manufacturing plant, without really knowing anything about what the business itself is like, or without gaining any knowledge valuable for entering that industry.

What pre-vocational training should include.

From the student's standpoint, different occupations should be studied in order, first, to learn something about the work that is done¹ in each. In the second place, a pupil needs to study them to get some idea of the kind of workers they employ, as well as to ascertain what personal tastes, interests, and characteristics are desirable in each business. In the third place, he should get some idea of the advantages which one occupation offers over another; which offers the best start, or work under the most favorable conditions, or the best chance of promotion.

KNOWLEDGE OF OCCUPATIONS

Why "blind alley" occupations should be avoided.

127. "Blind Alley" Occupations.—It is highly desirable that every boy and every girl should avoid "blind alley" industries. A "blind alley" occupation is one which gives fairly good wages to boys and girls, but offers no opportunity for advancement and does not employ men and women. The boy who sells papers on the street and the girl in the candy factory find themselves in industrial "blind alleys." All the training that the boy or girl gets in the active years of adolescence is therefore wasted so far as preparation for adult life work is concerned.

Facts regarding youthful workers.

Investigators report that in some states eighty-seven per cent of working children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen are engaged in "blind alley" occupations. They have left school in order to earn money and are

¹This is not so much a study of processes as of purposes, conditions, and results.

earning a little, but they are losing the school work which would fit them, as adults, to hold some better position. When they are eighteen or twenty, they must start anew at the very bottom, as unskilled workers in some other occupation. Boys and girls should stay in school as long as possible. If they are compelled to drop out, they should avoid an industry that leads nowhere.

128. Local and National Importance of Each Industry. —In selecting a life career, one should not simply find an industry that is interesting. A good vocation should possess most of the advantages mentioned in later sections of this topic, and, in order to be desirable, should have one additional merit. It should be found in many localities. An industry for which one town alone is famous, as is the making of collars and cuffs in Troy, may be quite satisfactory¹ if one does not wish, or is not compelled, to change his residence. In these days, however, a worker's family is likely to move at some time during his career. Any member of the family group who can do only one thing is at a serious disadvantage, if that one thing is done only in the town which he leaves. Such a person would be obliged to start at the beginning, in a new industry, even if he were middle-aged when the change was made.

In modern industry competition is keen (§28). In consequence each factory is likely to use the latest and best machinery which it can afford and can get. The methods used in each occupation are, therefore, much alike in New Hampshire, in Georgia, and in California. In a new community a skilled and willing worker is not long out of a job. A wise artisan will therefore try to select an industry in which he can find employment in different places and at different times. He will want a vocation which gives opportunity for advancement and

Disadvantages of a highly localized industry.

Advantages of industries with standardized methods.

¹ It must be understood that the industry pays good wages and offers possibilities for advancement.

in which his chance for promotion will be practically as good if he moves as it will be in the community in which he first began to work.

Why we must consider the probable future of industries.

129. Probable Future of Occupations.—Always select for a life career an occupation that has a good future. One can never foresee what inventions may place old tools and machinery in the scrap heap. Nevertheless, those who advise students, whether parents or teachers, ought to have enough knowledge of industries and of the trend of industrial development to judge whether an occupation is likely to be discontinued. There are certain kinds of farming, important a few years ago, which no longer employ many workers. One does not study old types of abbreviated words when better systems of shorthand are necessary. Many old methods in baking and cooking have been superseded by easier, more successful, and more modern processes.

Types of occupations to avoid.

Certainly no young man of to-day would think of preparing himself for a career connected with the liquor industry. Any one who devoted years of study to methods of sailing and of shipping used in bygone days would find little demand for his services, even if some old friend might employ him for a few years. Although hand-spun and hand-woven goods are of high value, the person who enters the industry of spinning or weaving needs preparation for a modern, up-to-date occupation. There is only a limited demand for shoemakers who make complete shoes, and a cobbler must be content with repair work. Few persons are likely to spend years fitting themselves to teach German or Greek in a high school, because of the present limited demand for teachers in those subjects. Even if some friend of the family is a successful worker in an industry, do not be persuaded to select it, unless it has a good future and unless it offers a wide field for action.

130. Opportunities for Beginners and for Advancement.—In some occupations the beginner is particularly fortunate, because he starts well up in the list of employees. Mail carriers and other government employees, school teachers, stenographers, and bookkeepers might be said to belong to this group. The wages at the beginning are high, even though there is little chance of great increase. To be sure, some school teacher may rise to the position of superintendent or college professor at a good salary. A shorthand expert who is particularly quick, intelligent, and well educated might possibly become a court stenographer, commanding a good income. Bookkeepers begin well, but only occasionally does a bookkeeper become an expert accountant. It can thus be seen that some occupations which afford the best opportunities at the start have very little future.

In a business that is desirable in itself and that does give opportunities for advancement, a person who expects to go to the top ought to be willing to begin at the bottom. Even if his preparation is unusually broad, if he hopes to supervise all processes of work, it is wise for him to gain a general acquaintance with the whole industry.

In the regular professions there are unusual opportunities, because there is always room at the top. In most large establishments, it is possible to rise from the status of an ordinary partly skilled worker to that of foreman or superintendent. Many of our railway presidents started in inferior positions. The greatest steel man of our day, Charles Schwab, was at one time only a day laborer in a steel plant. Some presidents of the United States have won their way to high office from a comparatively humble beginning.

131. Regularity of Work and Income.—One of the big problems of recent years in this country and in Great

Some occupations that pay fair wages to the beginner.

Business opportunities for advancement.

Professional and official possibilities.

Irregular work in mining of coal as a type problem.

Britain has been connected with the mining of coal. On both sides of the water, much more coal is used in winter than in summer. It is probable that if all the workers in the mines of England and America worked five days a week, they would mine more coal than would be needed. On an average, anthracite miners are idle sixty days out of a possible three hundred, and bituminous miners eighty-three. For much of the period in which they do work, they are employed only a few hours a day.

Advantages of regular employment in coal mining.

A seasonal industry of this type might be transformed into a regular occupation in which the output of the lean months, in the late spring and early summer, might be made practically as great as that of the peak months, in the late fall or early winter. The coal miners would then have regular incomes and steady work, and we should be rid of the discontent, disorder, and the appalling losses due to coal strikes and acute fuel shortage in crises.

Objections to all seasonal industries.

Many other occupations are seasonal, especially in the northern states where the seasons are sharply marked. A boy who goes into carpentry work ought also to have skill in cabinetmaking or in some other kind of woodwork which will give him regular employment in the months when there is no building. Probably no one would spend a long time preparing for a trade which devoted only the early fall months to making Christmas goods of a somewhat perishable nature. *Avoid seasonal industries.* Before making a selection of a life vocation, find out whether work in that occupation is to be regular, without long, enforced vacations, and without constant calls for overtime tasks. If overtime work is necessary, the occupation should be one which recognizes the extra sacrifice made after regular hours, and pays accordingly.

132. Hours of Work.—In some processes connected with the steel industry and in some other occupations it has been difficult to secure American workers because of

the unreasonably long hours. Foreigners who will work twelve-hour shifts for seven days a week have been secured at comparatively low wages, but no human being, entitled in even a limited sense to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," should be forced to toil eighty-four hours a week. Some street car companies and telephone offices, in states where there is no time limit to the hours

"Continuous" industries with few shifts to be avoided.



A LARGE FACTORY AT THE CLOSING HOUR

of work, likewise have demanded unreasonable hours of service. In some states drug store clerks are on duty twelve and thirteen hours a day. If an industry is one in which the work must be continued for twenty-four hours a day, or a large part of twenty-four hours, the work should be divided into shifts of not more than ten hours each, and if possible not more than eight.

To be attractive an industry should have comparatively short hours, in fact rather than in appearance. School

Desirability of short hours. teaching and banking have really much longer hours than might be imagined. The work day of the teacher or bank teller may not be as short as that of the carpenter or brickmason. The general public should see that youths and women who work are not compelled to labor more than nine hours daily, and preferably not more than eight hours each day. Certainly the less robust workers and possibly most, if not all, of the others should have one day of rest per week. If possible, there should be an extra half day vacation, at least during the summer months. Short hours mean time for leisure, recreation, and study.

Attractiveness of good working conditions.

133. **Other Conditions of Work.**—Conditions of work are in some respects more important than hours. Work in a quiet, clean office or shop at interesting tasks is far less fatiguing than work done in grimy and noisy surroundings. If one must always be on the alert to avoid dangerous machinery or to keep an electric needle going at high speed, the nervous strain is intense. Even such an occupation as that of a telephone operator should be avoided by one who is nervous. Do not be misled by comparatively high wages into taking a position in which the human "wear and tear" is heavy.

Occupations to be avoided.

It is not always possible to find work under a considerate and wise employer. It is probable that there is no one occupation in which employers as a class are especially thoughtful of the men and women under them. There are, however, many industries in which the conditions of employment are notoriously evil. This may be due to the fact that the work is left to overseers who are petty in spirit and who therefore make undue and unfair use of their positions to bully their subordinates. Such trades and such establishments are to be avoided.

Attitude of the public.

134. **Relations with the Public.**—Some occupations attract workers not because they pay well, but because they are pleasant and *held in high esteem by the general*

public. Many a man has gone into the ministry because of the respect for the cloth held by his parishioners and also by outsiders. Public singing and authorship make strong appeals, although usually they are not very remunerative. Thousands who are not employed in the "movies" would like to break into that business, although only a few stars and a comparatively small number of regular workers make much money in it. The artist and the poet are proverbially poor. If a person has skill and aptitude for these and other occupations, it may be wise to have some other work which brings a regular income. In his semi-leisure hours he can then make a hobby out of one of these interesting tasks. Fame is worth having, but few win it, and the pursuit of fame is not a good way to earn bread and butter.

The making of money, however, should not be the chief aim in the selection of any vocation. We wish work that makes a strong public appeal; we need work which gives opportunity for social service. Almost every occupation is of such value to the public that we may well speak of those who follow it as "soldiers of common welfare." If a person has a choice between two vocations that are practically equal, he should choose the one which gives better chance of helping his fellow men. A man who can do a valuable social service as part of his regular work will be a better citizen than the person who can really help his fellows only in the welfare service that he does outside of his business. Work honestly and faithfully done may be a citizen's best contribution to the public weal. As Kipling has pictured it:

Service of
the public
as a neces-
sary part
of any life.

"And only the Master shall praise us, and only the Master shall blame;
And no one shall work for money, and no one shall work for fame,
But each for the joy of working, and each, in his separate star,
Shall draw the Thing as he sees it for the God of Things as They
Are!"

Qualities
necessary
for good
enter-
prisers.

135. Opportunities for Those Who become Enterprisers.—Many young men and some young women are ambitious to make a great success in some line of business endeavor. They bring to their tasks *qualities of resourcefulness, inventiveness, and persistence which might win success in many different occupations.* They may be content to occupy lower positions to fit them for higher; but they are not satisfied to continue in a subordinate place if they know they are fitted for something better. Our commercial high schools have made comparatively little appeal to boys and girls with those qualities. They have been content to train bookkeepers and stenographers rather than to lay a foundation for *business managers and leaders, whom we call enterprisers.*

The duty
of high
school to
leaders.

In a sense enterprisers are born rather than made; but many more business organizers and managers succeed because of the use they make of their ability than because of inherited qualities. Each high school should make a study of occupations that are attractive to business leaders. Every high school should seek to develop leadership and should instill into its boys and girls the need of finding the work for which they are best fitted, of looking continually for better methods and opportunities within that field, and of developing skill in invention, organization, or management which will make them true leaders of men.

QUALITIES DESIRABLE IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS

Undesirability
of the
"brawn"
occupations
for educated
men and
women.

136. Work requiring Brawn.—In general, occupations which make use of physical strength do not employ many men of education. It is highly desirable that each worker should be as well and as strong as possible. But simply because a man has physical strength, he is not justified in entering an occupation like ditch-digging or stone-lifting, which calls for little but physical strength

and endurance. We must not misunderstand; the dignity of labor is largely a dignity of manual labor. God pity the American people if its youth ever come to despise work done with the hands! In a sense, however, it might be said that work requiring brawn, and only brawn, does not touch the problem which we are studying, that is, the problem of preparing boys and girls of the early adolescent period for life careers in which they



Hine Photo Company

A SECTION GANG ON A RAILROAD

can make the most of themselves and do the most for society.

There is another reason why pupils should not study occupations demanding brawn alone with any idea of entering them. Most of this crude type of labor has appealed chiefly to the immigrant laborer who has been accustomed to excessive toil in the field or in the mine. American workers, whether well educated or not, hesitate to compete with these unskilled and uneducated Euro-

Inevitable competition with aliens.

peans. The construction work on railways, the heavy work in excavation for buildings, and the crude tasks performed by the ordinary miner are therefore left almost exclusively to foreigners.

137. Mechanical Skill.—The skilled worker or artisan belongs to a different class and lives in a different world from the group we have just been considering. To be sure, the blacksmith, the steel worker, and many others who are really skilled mechanics must have unusual strength. Possibly also they may require the delicacy of touch of a master worker. Take, for example, the worker who handled a huge steam hammer weighing a ton and capable of delivering blows of terrific force. When a watch was placed upon the plate, he stopped his hammer without breaking the crystal, though the hammer was so close that a sheet of paper could not be slipped between hammer and watch. Such men are invaluable in almost any occupation.

How society could, and should, have helped these men more. Comparatively few workers in the industries requiring mechanical skill have acquired much of their training in schools. Most of them left school at an early age, started in any situation which happened to be open, and adapted themselves to the peculiar needs of the work that came to their hands. If we were to make a study of the men in these industries, we should find that probably half of them could do better work at some other task. If it had been possible to keep most of them in school for three or four years longer, and to give them mechanical and vocational training along lines in which they were most interested, they would have become much more useful citizens. They would have made better selection of their life work and would have had much better preparation for it.

138. Deftness and Alertness.—Mechanical skill gives opportunities chiefly for boys. Deftness and alertness

What makes a successful artisan or mechanician.

are qualities distinctively feminine. Occasionally, however, they are used in mechanical occupations with remarkable success. During the World War, when the men of England and France were at the front, girls and young women took their places in munition factories. The output of the women workers was considerably higher than that of the average man, largely because of the characteristics that we are now considering.

Feminine skill in work formerly left to men.



SWITCHBOARD IN A BIG TELEPHONE OFFICE

Deftness and alertness are most valuable, not in doing quickly and skillfully the tasks meant for men's fingers, but in work of an entirely different character. In order to have a list of occupations requiring deftness, alertness, and taste, one need only summarize those industries chiefly filled by women. Most clerks and office assistants are women, for the work is light, but requires these qualities. Among men, how seldom one finds a first-class stenographer, a typist who averages forty words a

Some reasons why certain occupations are almost monopolized by women.

minute, a telephone operator who manages a complicated board in a modern exchange, a first class milliner. In much factory work, as in the making of paper flowers or in the manufacture of collars, practically all of the delicate tasks are left to women.

Contrast
between the
average
pupil and
the superior
boy or girl.

139. Inventiveness and Resourcefulness.—The great armies of employees engaged in the more or less humdrum occupations are not composed of men and women or boys and girls of the highest education. In a democracy it is desirable that each of these citizens should receive the best education¹ that their circumstances and abilities permit. Nevertheless, it would be a mistake to try to give most of these people the best type of a complete high school education. Certainly a college education would be wasted upon the majority. Even among those that drop out of school, there are, however, a very large number of boys and girls whose minds are keen and who are ambitious to make the most of themselves. Society owes to each of them opportunity to secure the best training which the state can provide—an education that really meets their needs.

Develop-
ment of
leadership.

The schools should not discourage curiosity, inventiveness, or resourcefulness. Class work must be done by a group working together, but the individual who possesses initiative, individuality, personality, and capacity for leadership should be encouraged to develop those traits. Only in this way can the nation hope to discover defects and find better methods in its way of doing things. The world's progress has not been brought about altogether by doing well the things which others have taught us to do. It has been achieved largely by the improvements made by experts who have invented new devices and developed new ideas.

¹ If these boys and girls remain in school until the age of 16 or 18, the training which they receive should be very different from that given in high schools a quarter of a century ago, and in some high schools to-day.

140. Advanced Professional Preparation.—Comparatively few professional men of to-day are uneducated. The majority have received at least part of a *college education and some professional training in addition*. Almost all the higher specialists in law, medicine, education, and theology have gone through both a college and a professional school. Although the battle is not necessarily to the strong, or the race to the swift, competition is exceedingly severe among the leaders of any profession. The advantage usually rests either with the person who is best prepared and uses his brains to the best advantage, or with the one physically strongest among those equally equipped mentally. Genius is after all very little more than hard work rightly applied.

Each of the professions requires a set of qualities of its own.¹ The man who should make a first-class lawyer probably would not be successful as a physician, and a man who should become a very skilled surgeon might be

Need of advanced education for professional specialists.

Different qualities needed in different professions.

¹ It stands to reason that if one is not interested in religion he should avoid the ministry; but a person might not be a good minister simply because he is religious. Booker T. Washington tells about an old colored man who wanted to preach. He came to Washington and said that he had had a vision in which he had seen the letters G. P. C., which he interpreted to mean "Go preach Christ." Knowing that the man was not fitted to be a successful minister, Washington told him that instead of meaning that, the letters meant "Go plant corn." Practically every minister should be a fairly good pastor and he should have that combination of human qualities and the power of expressing himself publicly and sympathetically which would make him a man honored and desired in any community.

If a boy thinks he would like to be a physician or a surgeon, but is unwilling to devote very much time outside of school to his lessons, the chances are that he will rebel against the long hours and constant interruptions day and night which is the lot of a general practicing physician.

There are many types of lawyers. The legal profession needs some who excel in study, who can follow a problem, or who have ability to get together material. The man who can plead well before a jury will have a greater public reputation than will his quieter partner, although his work may be of less value professionally. Since clergymen and physicians usually work as individuals, whereas lawyers frequently work together, a lawyer can ordinarily be more of a specialist than men in either of the other professions.

A first class lawyer, teacher, minister, or doctor must have an extraordinary knowledge of human nature and of the way things are done in this world. These professions, and many others, give excellent opportunities of public service for those who really wish to help humanity.

an utter failure in the pulpit. If one is to enter a profession, he must study the qualities that are needed in that particular occupation. He should then seek to find the institution of higher learning in which he can get the best general foundation for that type of work, and, if possible, he should round out his preparation by a course in the best professional school that is available.



UNION THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

Need of
training in
oral expres-
sion.

141. Ability in Addressing or Handling Men.—Leadership is not all of one type. There are leaders and leaders. The quack who stands on the street corner and persuades a gullible public to buy his nostrums may have qualities of appeal which should have fitted him for a much higher task. Too few of our educated men are able to think on their feet and say what they wish to say clearly, directly, and briefly. Our schools have neglected training in oral expression, one of the finest arts that can be studied. Although experience is more valuable than instruction, wise suggestions are necessary to avoid mannerisms. In recitation and in speech the student can be aided by friends and by teachers, particularly by those who specialize in English.

An entirely different type of leadership is found among those who must guide and direct the efforts of a large number of men. For every hundred men who succeed in their profession, there is not more than one who is a successful student of men, capable of holding their interest, directing their attention, and leading them to higher levels. Our greatest generals have not always been the finest tacticians, but they have been pre-eminently *leaders*.¹ In a great factory or in a large railway system, one man is *manager*, not necessarily because he knows more about the subject than any of his colleagues, but because *he understands human nature and is able to handle men*.

True types
of leader-
ship.

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10. Salesmanship. GILES, *Vocational Civics*, 121-134.
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¹ Before the World War broke out, Marshal Foch, generalissimo of the allies in their great victory (1918), was professor of military history, strategy, and applied tactics at the Superior School of War in Paris. In his classroom he had trained thousands of officers who, in the last great drive against the Germans, were able to carry out the plans of the great teacher and leader.

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Questions

1. In the selection of a vocation, (a) what two kinds of knowledge will be most valuable to us? (b) What work done in any industry is it most important that we should study?

2. What is a "blind alley" industry? Why are so many boys and girls who leave school found in blind alley occupations? Give one objection to becoming a skilled worker in a localized industry. What is meant by a national standardized industry?

3. Why is it important to select an industry that has a future? Name a half dozen industries which have fewer opportunities and openings than they had a few years ago.

4. What is a seasonal industry? Name two seasonal industries and give reasons why each is not a continuous occupation. Is it possible to change either of them into regular, continuous industries? If so, how can it be done and what is the probability that this change will be made?

5. Name at least one industry in which long hours are almost unavoidable. Why should there be a time limit on the work of young people and of women? Which is harder, the ordinary school day or a two-hour examination? What is the importance of conditions of work compared with hours? Explain objections to noisy or dirty surroundings, dangerous machinery, or work undertaken, like examinations, under severe strain. Give four occupations held in high public esteem and explain why each is honored or favored.

6. What is more important, to start at a good salary or to have excellent opportunities for advancement? (In giving your answer consider the ambition, ability, and possibility of growth of the person employed.) What difficulties are encountered by a person

*Primarily for teachers

at the top who has never had experience with all types of his work from the bottom up? From the standpoint of opportunities to rise, does modern industry seem to be fairly democratic? If one wanted to become an enterpriser, would one choose an occupation organized on a very large scale or an industry in which there are many heads? What qualities are necessary for a good enterpriser?

7. What different industries and other occupations are there in this city? How many men and women are employed in each? If possible, learn which pay the best wages to (a) the ordinary employee, (b) the most skilled workers. If you are interested in two or more, give six reasons why you prefer one to others.

8. Make a list of occupation characteristics that are desirable from the standpoint of the mature worker. Make a similar list of those which we wish to avoid. Do you find that the occupation already selected has many desirable features and few that are objectionable?

9. If possible visit a factory in this vicinity. What does it produce? What materials does it use chiefly? Does it employ more men than women? (Explain reason for your answer.) Are its hours, wages, and working conditions satisfactory? What work or processes interested you most? Why? Do you think employees of that factory have good opportunities for promotion? Within a day or two after the visit write a paper on the subject.

10. Name occupations in which artisans have acquired their skill in actual work rather than from school preparation. What advantages would most of them have had if they had had better training? Do girls tend to drop out of school earlier than boys? In what types and kinds of industry do we find most women workers? What natural feminine characteristics are utilized in these vocations?

11. In order that our schools should be democratic, must everyone receive practically the same amount of education? What qualities are necessary in leaders? What kinds of schools and courses encourage traits of this kind? Assuming that only the exceptional pupil has these qualities, how far should any school favor the exceptional pupil?

12. What is meant by a profession? In this state is it possible for any person to practice one of the professions without having some professional training? (If possible learn the exact requirements in this state.) To what extent have most of the professional men and women of this locality had some college work?

How many of them do you imagine are college graduates? Name some qualities needed in each of the professions, including teaching.

13. In most occupations of the higher type, what is the value of ability to express one's self clearly and effectively? (Compare a man who is splendidly qualified for some position in business or a profession but who does not have the art of persuasion, with one equally well qualified who does have it.) Do the "good talkers" tend to stay near the bottom or to rise to the top? If you were compelled to make a choice, would you learn to speak fluently or would you make a careful study of human nature?

CHAPTER XII

SCHOOL PREPARATION FOR BUSINESS

1. Pre-vocational training
 - a. General and special work in the grades
 - b. General high school courses
 - c. Technical high school courses
 - (1) Mechanical arts
 - (2) Domestic science
 - d. Trade schools
2. Vocational guidance
 - a. The problem
 - b. Vocational guidance from the school point of view
 - c. Compulsory and part-time education
 - d. School help in occupational placement and advancement

PRE-VOCATIONAL TRAINING

142. General and Special Work in the Grades.—Only one person out of every five who enters the first grade graduates from the eighth. In some cities three fourths of the boys and girls never reach the seventh grade. It is hardly possible that any community can educate properly, either for life in general or for civic duties, or for a life work, the children who drop out in the primary or lower grammar grades. Surely a great rich nation like ours can afford to give these young people the kind of training that will be of real value to them. Just as surely it should keep in school those of sufficient mental ability to be worth educating not only through the grammar school, but well into the high school. Our schools ought not to be turned into institutions for the training of apprentices, but they should give information

The
problem of
the pupil
who drops
out.

and practice that will help young people in securing and keeping jobs whenever they are compelled to drop out of school.

Some essentials of work in the grades.

General work in the three R's should lay a good foundation for every boy or girl who attends any American school. If the pupil knows how to read a little, he will in most cases continue to read. If he can add and subtract accurately, he has acquired practical skill of real value. If he can multiply and divide without mistake, he will probably continue to learn practical work with figures. Some *civic training* should also be given in the lower grades for the benefit of those who drop out at an inexcusably early age. Some knowledge of geography must be conveyed because the child should understand something about the region in which he lives. Our courses can not be organized, however, chiefly for the benefit of those who leave; they must be planned for the larger and better work done by those who continue in the higher grades.

Practical work in the grades of the junior high school.

In the upper grammar grades, that is, in the early years of the junior high school, much more education can be gained than in the elementary years. If the student is of the type that undoubtedly will not continue and that needs special training for routine work, he can get some vocational studies in the seventh and eighth grades. Every girl should have instruction in domestic science or household arts, including a little sewing and a little cooking. Every boy should have opportunity to work with his hands at a bench, and possibly even with metals. Not only do we learn to do by doing, but when we can see results we are encouraged to go on.

Value of the older courses for college preparation.

143. General High School Courses.—The old style classical education of a half century ago has largely disappeared. There are still a few college preparatory schools, specializing in Latin and Greek and mathematics

and devoting less attention to other subjects. The president of a medium sized but distinguished college told the writer a number of years ago that his institution was changing its requirements back to more Latin and more Greek because the students who took those preparatory courses were better equipped to do good work in college. Heads of engineering schools and of agricultural colleges declare that they prefer students thoroughly trained in academic work to students who have taken practical, vocational courses in high schools. Through the study of literary subjects the minds of the students are better trained for advanced work.

These statements indicate that general courses in high schools are of real value for either academic or practical work in later years. The student who dislikes algebra or Latin, because he will never use it, loses the main point, namely, that education is not chiefly a means of finding how to do some minor technical thing. *Education is a process by which the individual learns and develops his powers.* If he has power and ability, the learning of the minor processes is not likely to delay him long on his upward way.¹

Practical
value of
purely
academic
work.

144. Technical High School Courses—Mechanical Arts.²—Every boy should know how to do things with his hands. In olden days the home gave the lad fair training in practical arts because there were numerous things that he was forced to do around the house or farm. The ordinary modern home does not give the boy as many good opportunities. He must, therefore, depend chiefly upon the school. In the grades, especially in large cities, some attention is paid to woodshop work of a simple character. In many junior and special schools a boy can

Difficulty
in training
the boy be-
low the high
school age.

¹In connection with this subject, discuss the absolute and general requirements of academic courses. See above §§116-125.

²It has seemed desirable to limit the discussion of technical courses chiefly to two—one for boys and one for girls.

get a little elementary work in metals. Unless the community has a junior high school, most boys can not have any training in mechanics until they enter high school, and some high schools are not equipped for even the simplest type of vocational work.



AGRICULTURAL BUILDING, MICHIGAN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE

Manual
work for
all high
school
boys.

Every high school boy ought to have at least one year of general training in the handling of tools, in the making of simple patterns or designs, and in the construction of some objects, preferably in wood. The boy ought to know how to do ordinary repair work about a house. Whenever possible, he should be encouraged to have his own tool box, workbench, and set of instruments. Many boys who otherwise would have gone to work have found school interesting because it gave them a chance to do manual work.

Nature of a
good course
in mechan-
ical arts.

Courses in mechanical or practical arts are not designed chiefly for the student who can take only one year of that work. Most of the students found in classes of this

type want to study *pre-vocational¹* work. They should have some courses in English, at least one in citizenship, and some other necessary subjects. They are not continuing in school, however, in order to get a good general education but to earn a better living for themselves and those dependent upon them. The mechanical subjects are not taken, however, for the purpose of turning out skilled workers—carpenters, mechanicians, or printers—but to enable those who take them to enter the one of two or three industries in which they show the greatest interest.

These courses give boys practice, therefore, in many different types and kinds of work. They should enable the student to do work with his hands in order that he may know what he can make out of wood or iron, and how the article must be made. If he is compelled to draw patterns of the things which he constructs,² in addition to making them, *he is getting an opportunity of understanding how his hands and his mind work together* and how *he can solve a problem in construction* by using both his hands and his brains. Boys trained in good courses will find not only more openings in industries, but also better situations. They should rise to positions in which they direct rather than are directed.

145. Technical Courses—Domestic Science.—Before graduation, *every high school girl should have a general course in the elements of home making.* The home of to-day gives plenty of opportunity for a modern girl to help, although it does not need her assistance as much as did the old home in which children were numerous and conveniences few. What has been said about the boys in regard to mechanical arts is equally true of the girls in

Educational
and pre-
vocational
value of
manual
training
courses.

Need of
training in
home
economics.

¹Vocational work actually trains for some distinct vocation or occupation. Pre-vocational work prepares for any one of several occupations by teaching underlying principles of those vocations and by giving a little experience with work in each.

²The student needs some work in mechanical drawing.

domestic arts. The girl needs practical work even more than does the boy, because most boys learn to make things for themselves, whereas most girls wait until they are shown. Domestic science prepares girls for home life in later years. It is, therefore, more desirable to reach a large number of girls with the fundamentals of the science than to give intensive training to a few.

Pre-vocational value
of domestic
science
courses.

From the standpoint of *a life career outside of the home*, the domestic science courses are valuable chiefly to the students who specialize in home economics. They are pre-vocational in the same sense as are the courses in mechanical arts. That is, the object of courses of this type is not to turn out nurses, or caterers, or milliners, but to give the students some general knowledge of nursing, cookery, sewing, and other practical arts. In this way a girl can study her own tastes and develop along the lines in which she is especially interested. If she is obliged to drop out of high school, she has a little knowledge which should be helpful in obtaining such a situation as will be worth her attention. If she stays in school and completes a good course in home economics, she will have some understanding of the underlying principles of hygiene, household management, nursing, and other allied subjects. She should then be fairly well prepared either to serve as a manager of a house of her own or as an assistant in some business. Like her brother who has taken work in manual arts, she should be able to find something good and advance quickly to something better.

Nature and
limitations
of trade
schools.

146. Trade Schools.—Comparatively few of our American public schools are really trade schools. A trade school is not one in which a student secures a general education, nor is it a technical institution which teaches a person the elements of several different branches. *A trade school is one in which an apprentice learns the*

mechanics of a trade. The ordinary business college is a trade school because it turns out stenographers, typists, and bookkeepers. It usually gives to its students a brief course in all three. So far as technical experience with those subjects is concerned, the graduates of these schools may be well trained, but, as everyone knows, a good stenographer and typist is very much more than a



LINOTYPE ROOM IN SCHOOL OF PRINTING

girl who can take shorthand notes and turn out good work on a machine. She must know how to spell and to punctuate properly; she should have a fairly good general education. Most unsuccessful stenographers and typists are failures because they lack education rather than technical skill.

Trade schools are of many types. In this country we have comparatively few, but in Germany the children who are to be prepared for trades are usually separated at a

High value
of trade
education
for
apprentices.

comparatively early age from those who are to go on with a higher education. Since a trade school makes a business of teaching a youth the vocation which he is expected later to practice, he is likely to learn the trade very much more quickly and very much better than he can as apprentice in a shop under a careless and frequently hostile foreman.

Contrast
between
foreign and
American
continua-
tion schools.

Much of the work in the *German and British continuation schools* and in some of the continuation schools in this country is largely vocational. That is, practice is given almost exclusively in the work in which the apprentice is being prepared. Many of our American continuation schools, on the other hand, give a general elementary education rather than trade preparation. Their work includes courses in English and citizenship, as well as pre-vocational work of different kinds.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Need of
work that
suits our
tastes,
interests,
and
abilities.

147. The Problem.—The man or woman who is compelled to devote his life to an occupation that is distasteful and otherwise unsatisfactory has a just complaint against society. It is possible that there is no work which satisfies the particular likes or dislikes of every person. But certainly a man that would make a good plumber is likely to be discontented if fate turns him into a house painter, and a man that might have become a first-class draftsman or mechanic is bound to be dissatisfied if forced to remain a farmer. There is an old saying, "Happy is that man who has found his work." If we enjoy the thing that we are doing well, we shall agree with Professor Thomas that play is work which we like. In such tasks we shall put much more interest and enthusiasm than we can possibly have for something which we do simply because we need to earn a living. If our life work not only appeals to us, but, in addition, is

the kind of work which we can do best, then we are happy, contented, and useful.

We can not ask that the school find for us the right place in business. No teacher who is responsible for a large group of students can possibly know the tastes and preferences of those boys and girls well enough to give the best advice on the kind of work that each should have. Even parents, who ought to know their children thoroughly, may make mistakes when they try to find the right kind of occupation for their young people. Immature boys and girls are often more interested in leaving a teacher whom they do not like or studies that are hard and unpleasant than they are in picking out the vocation which they should follow. They are likely to take the first thing that comes to hand, if it will give them a fairly steady income. On the contrary, one ought not to wait in idleness until the right thing turns up, especially if the right thing is a job which can be filled only by an expert or by a worker of special charm or enthusiasm.

The problem of finding the right place.

148. Vocational Guidance from the School Point of View.—The best vocational guidance that can be offered by the school is not necessarily given by a specialist who examines boys and girls and advises them what to do. That work is valuable if done correctly and under the right kind of adviser. The suggestions of a person who knows the student well are likely to be more helpful, if the one who gives the suggestions also understands the problem. But the busy teacher has no time to study carefully the qualities which are needed in any particular occupation. She can not be sure that the student is fitted for carpenter work rather than engineering, for stenography rather than teaching.

Advice from specialist and teacher.

Vocational guidance may be given in part through the right kind of subjects, if taught in the right way. This does not mean that the student should necessarily take

Value of regular subjects, properly taught.

technical or vocational subjects, but rather that he should form a wide acquaintance with the business world and with different industries and occupations, as well as with civic and social problems. There is no reason why his English class should not study questions of life careers. General work in citizenship and in commercial and industrial geography, especially if it includes vocational civics, should be of the very highest value.

Advantages
of taking
many
different
subjects.

Every student should have a fair variety of subjects in the junior high school work and in the senior high school, if he takes a course in the latter institution. In this way he is able to learn whether it is wiser to remain in school and prepare for some career requiring advanced training or to make his selection of a career at the age of thirteen or fifteen. If he has a chance to study history and science, drawing, music, and possibly some commercial work, as well as English, mathematics, and foreign languages, he may get an idea of what occupations interest him most.

Impossibility
of giving
vocational
guidance to
students
who leave
school.

There is a disadvantage as well as an advantage in a great variety of work. If the student drops out before reaching the senior high school, he does not get sufficient training in any one thing to make him useful either in a machine shop, a printing establishment, a carpet factory, a lawyer's office, the bookkeeping department of a store, or any of a thousand other businesses which might be mentioned. It can thus be seen that if a student wants to have good vocational guidance and training, *he must remain in school* long enough to obtain a little of many things, and secure much of the one thing that is likely to help him most in his life work.

Problems of
compulsory
education.

149. Compulsory and Part-Time Education.—Students should not be allowed to leave school except in case of the direst necessity, but it is not just to make education compulsory if parents need the help of their boys and

girls. When the wage-earner of a family is disabled, the children must earn money unless society sees that the family has the necessities of life. If forced to labor, however, the boys and girls may be deprived of even a complete grammar school education. If children are not properly educated, how can they, as adults, earn a living wage and provide for themselves and their families? A complete system of public education is, therefore, essential to prevent child-labor, to fit those deprived of sight or hearing, and those



Students in Laboratory



Paving a Street

PART TIME WORK IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

who are lame or crippled, for some work which they can do, and to give all boys and girls a preparation for life which will enable them to earn a good living.¹

Possibility
of dividing
time be-
tween
school
and shop
or store.

A large number of boys and girls of intermediate or high school age can not spend more than part of their time on school studies. The public owes to these youthful citizens opportunity for continuing their education if it is possible. Most of them ought to receive at least half-day training in schools, covering two or three subjects. By half-day work we do not mean a half day in classes with additional preparation outside, but a half-day for class or shop work, including all preparation. In communities whose schools maintain morning and afternoon sessions, in which there are opportunities for employment of young people, the public should be willing to give school instruction to one group in the morning and to a similar group of practically the same size in the afternoon. *Business men should be educated to the need of employing these young people for the half-day in which they are not in school.* Undoubtedly most employers will be glad to make some concessions and sacrifices, if necessary, in order that the poorer children may have this additional chance of continuing in school.

Need of
better co-
operation
in occupa-
tional place-
ment.

150. School Help in Occupational Placement and Advancement.—When a youth wishes to find a job, he rarely asks much help from the school. Why? Partly because the school does not know what situations there are;² partly because the employers have not been sufficiently interested to coöperate with the schools. If business men and school administrators get together in the way proposed in the preceding section, they can much more easily help students to secure permanent

¹ Education is therefore connected with such apparently unrelated subjects as child labor, accident insurance, the minimum wage, etc. (§§170, 172, 180-183).

² Some school departments of commerce make a specialty of finding situations for their graduates.

positions and aid employers in filling vacancies. If the vocational guidance experts continually consult the teachers, they should understand fairly well the tastes, interests, and preferences as well as the faults and the limitations of the students who want work.¹

The schools can at least keep lists of vacancies in different businesses. They can also make lists of students who want work, with rather full statements of the kind of things those students like best and the tasks which they can do best or actually have done well. The half-time work which has just been mentioned ought to give very valuable training. There is no teacher so good as experience, provided we can profit by the mistakes made in that experience. The day may come when technical schools will demand part-time work in some actual business as a requirement for graduation. In communities where part-time work is impossible or undesirable, actual, successful participation in some business for a school term may possibly be made a school requirement in many courses, a requirement for which school credit is given.

The school is now reorganizing its courses and making them better than they have ever been in the past. The business community is giving help by its willingness to furnish employment when called upon to do so. Society in general must do its share by insisting that pupils do not drop out of school uneducated and incapable of doing any good work. The boys and girls must do their part by staying in school, if it is possible, by getting into the game and developing interest, even if they do not have it at first, and by finding that type of work which

Better preparation of students for actual business.

Need of new and better co-operation among all interested parties.

¹ It is hardly fair to expect that the teacher who acts as adviser will be able to do what the scientific management experts are trying to do, and what very few have been able to accomplish. These scientific management experts not only try to find better ways of doing work, but they also examine different workers in an establishment to see whether they might not do much better in some other department or in some other situation within the same department.

they can do better than any other work and better than anyone else can do it.

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Questions

1. What is the difference between pre-vocational work and vocational training? Should our schools be institutions for the training of apprentices, that is, should they give strictly vocational work?

*Primarily for teachers.

2. What percentage of those who enter the first grade graduate from the sixth or seventh or eighth? (Try to get exact figures in the school system of this community.) Why is work in the three R's a splendid foundation for anyone who expects to make a success of his life career? Why should there be some civic training even below the seventh grade?

3. Is there a junior high school in this city? If so, what grades does it include? What courses does it give? What special pre-vocational work does it offer? If there is no junior high school, is there departmental work in the grammar schools? Is any specific vocational work given in the upper grammar grades?

4. What do you mean by a classical education? Why should college presidents and professors favor classical or rather strict academic training as good preparation for college? Is it true that every student should take some work that he probably never can use in a practical way?

5. What pre-vocational courses are offered in the high school or high schools of this community? Explain why all boys should know how to do things with their hands. Should every high school boy have at least one year's work in manual arts? If so, why? If not, why not? As pre-vocational work, what is the value of a course in manual or mechanical arts? Aside from the practical value of work done, what should a fairly good student get out of his course? (Answer the last two questions for each of the other pre-vocational courses given in any high school of this community.)

6. Explain why every girl should be able to do necessary work about a home. Do you believe that what has been said about the boys in regard to mechanical arts is equally true of girls in domestic arts? In a first-class high school of commerce, what is the value of nonvocational subjects, for example, those in economics or in applied economics such as commercial geography, industrialism, and finance?

7. What is a trade school? What are the limitations of the ordinary trade school? Is it possible for a technical high school to give all the advantages of a trade education with the additional opportunities of a fairly general course? What is a continuation school? In continuation school work, what should be required of every boy or girl under sixteen who has been forced to drop out of school?

8. Why must society try to find for most workers the work which they can do best? If work that we like is play, what advantage is there to society in training us for, and letting us have, work that we want? Do you know any person who never would be content in any ordinary situation? If so, can you give reasons for the discontent?

9. What is meant by vocational guidance? What are the advantages of vocational guidance by an expert in that subject? What is the value of vocational guidance by those who know us well? Why is it true that "vocational guidance may be given in part by the right kind of subject, if taught in the right way?" Name three subjects that can be used in that way and explain how they should be taught in order to be valuable in helping us prepare for life careers.

10. If the vast majority of students drop out before they reach the senior high school (tenth grade), should there be vocational guidance for them? If so, what should be done for them (1) in the subjects they should take, (2) in pre-vocational work, and (3) in specific preparation for a specific vocation? What are the advantages (a) of getting a general education; (b) of studying a little in each of several pre-vocational branches? What are the disadvantages in a great variety of work? Show that in order to get good vocational guidance a student must remain in school beyond the ninth grade.

11. Why should education be compulsory? What is the problem of compulsory education for poor families in an industrial community? Why is compulsory education closely connected with such apparently unrelated subjects as poor relief (§235), workmen's compensation (§182), and unemployment (§180).

12. What is meant by part-time education? For what classes of students ought a community to arrange a schedule of half-time education and of half time for industry? If such an arrangement can not be made, is it desirable that a high school graduate should be compelled to occupy successfully a business situation for at least one quarter or one semester? Explain your answer.

13. In the schools of this city, what persons or agencies keep lists of students who want work and coöperate with the business men of this locality? Should there not be some well organized bureau to learn of business vacancies and to supply just the person who is best prepared, if such a student or former student is available? Is there any danger that if such a bureau were connected with the schools, boys or girls would be tempted to drop out in order to earn money?

14. What do you understand by "scientific management"? Why has scientific management been an advantage to employers? Why should it be used to secure a better placement of workers, either beginners or older employees? What should the school and community do in working out more satisfactory ways of giving the students better preparation for a life career?

CHAPTER XIII

BUSINESS AND SOCIETY

1. Wealth and property—private and public
 - a. What wealth is
 - b. Importance of production
 - c. The problem of distribution
 - d. Private property
 - (1) Private property and thrift
 - (2) Advantages and limitations of private property
 - e. Public property
2. Business, private and public
 - a. Personal freedom
 - b. Private enterprise
 - c. Competition and monopoly
 - d. Large scale industry and division of labor
 - e. Private corporations
 - f. Privately owned public service corporations
 - g. Public ownership or management
 - h. Government and the farmer
3. Public control of business
 - a. General
 - b. Policy of a protective tariff
 - c. State anti-trust laws
 - d. National anti-trust legislation
 - e. Control of railways

WEALTH AND PROPERTY—PRIVATE AND PUBLIC

151. What Wealth Is.—Any kind of material goods is wealth. The clothing we wear, the books we read, the pencils and paper we use are familiar forms of wealth. These are *personal property*. This term also includes household furniture, cooking utensils, garden tools, plows, harrows, and other farm instruments

Kinds of
personal
possessions.

Fairly durable goods created by man.

Another kind of wealth consists not of the goods that we consume, but of more durable articles such as houses and buildings, and machinery by which those goods are produced. A factory with its equipment is a very important form of wealth as it is kept constantly at work turning out new products. The steam railroad has its stations, roundhouses, and workshops, its numerous engines, passenger coaches, and freight cars. It is like the factory in that it makes goods more valuable than they were before.

Value of different kinds of land.

Still another type of wealth is found in *land*, which is especially valuable because it can not be taken away. Its value consists not, however, in the land itself, but in what it will produce. If it is agricultural land, it is valuable because of the elements of the top soil in which we may grow cereals or vegetables. If it is forest land, its worth depends upon the size and qualities of its timber. If it is mineral land, its treasures can be mined.

Use of wealth.

All these forms of wealth are alike in that they represent *material goods which are used to satisfy human wants*.

Desirable forms of wealth.

152. Importance of Production.—Every society wants as much wealth as it can secure. It does not wish to have all of its wealth in the form of goods ready for consumption, nor does it want all of them in machines and other forms of capital, which are used simply to create more wealth. It desires enough land to produce the food and minerals that it needs.

Why wealth can not be created without work.

It should be an important aim of any people to *produce* a large amount of wealth. Otherwise, not enough is created year by year to provide the food, clothing, and other necessities and comforts that the people should have. In order to do this, there should be an abundance of land and *artificial* capital. People must be willing to work reasonably long hours at tasks that really do produce something valuable, and not simply transfer wealth

from one hand to another. We must be thrifty and save not simply for ourselves, but in order that those who come after us may have at least as much as we.

153. The Problem of Distribution.—By distribution we mean *the dividing up of the wealth* that is produced among those who take part in the process of production. The *laborer* contributes a large share, for he gives his labor. In return he receives wages. The *capitalist* furnishes the money for the purchase of buildings, machinery, and materials. He, also, must have a return or he will not loan the money needed for these different forms of capital. The *person that owns the land* must receive a share, for otherwise he would not allow the land to be used for this particular purpose. He might even permit it to remain idle. The *man who manages the business* must also have some share, because he is obliged to rent the land, borrow the money, and hire the workers; and he will not take all of these risks unless he is likely to make a reasonable profit.

Probably one or two of these persons will have an advantage over the others. Since they are human, they will usually take advantage of the others if they can. The landlord who can furnish the land or not, as he wishes, is likely to charge all that he can possibly get. The capitalist and manager will seek to make large profits for themselves at the expense of the landlord and the worker. If the workers can organize, they will demand and receive a much larger share than they otherwise would have. There is a serious economic problem connected with the distributing or dividing up of goods produced by these persons working together. Each is entitled to his own share of the product. If he does not get it, injustice has been done to him.

154. Private Property and Thrift.—Comparatively little wealth is now owned by the public; the rest we

Sets of persons who help create wealth; what each receives.

Why just distribution of wealth does not always occur.

Great extent of private property.

Disadvantages of common property.

Economic advantages of private property.

Political advantages of private ownership.

call private property. Undoubtedly the institution of private property is one of the most important economic characteristics of society to-day. Clothing, weapons, tools, and other personal effects of civilized man have always been privately owned. To-day land may be owned by anyone who can buy it; but for practically ten centuries in the Middle Ages land was not owned privately.

Without private ownership of property, there would be little inducement to work except for the satisfaction of immediate needs. Few people would economize if their savings were placed in a common fund, to which others contributed little or nothing. We want something of our own laid away for a rainy day. We desire property not only for its own direct use, but also for the *income* which savings will produce. Since the time may come when the chief wage-earner of a family will be old, disabled, or dead, he wishes to provide for those dependent on him.

Saving must be encouraged by society, not only because people will work harder if they are allowed to accumulate property, but because our vast modern system of production would be impossible without a large amount of capital. Thrift is a civic duty even in a country of apparently unlimited resources. The institution of private property exists, therefore, not as a natural right, but because of its usefulness to society. Through it society promotes the individual welfare of its members and the general welfare of the whole group.

155. Advantages and Limitations of Private Property.—It would be difficult for individuals to own private property, however, if the public did not encourage private ownership. Our governments protect property in order that a man who wants it may be able to acquire it, and for the further reason that anyone who owns goods is interested in good government and the protection of property as well as of life. William R. George, founder of the George

Junior Republic, said that the boys of his schools may have been lawless and willing to destroy or steal other people's goods before they became citizens of some Republic and were allowed to acquire property. When they became owners, however, they immediately learned to look at things from a different point of view and very jealously guarded their own property, together with their right to acquire it and to keep it.

No man who owns property has the right to use it for the injury of another. If he drives a car, he must take reasonable care on the streets. In his home he ought to avoid those things which injure his neighbors. In a residence district one may not establish an objectionable business such as a boiler factory. It is impossible, however, to prohibit any except the worst nuisances. It is therefore only fair that all people should, in every way in their power, be good neighbors.

Some people imagine that a spendthrift is a valuable member of society because he makes work for a number of people; but the spendthrift is simply destroying wealth, and those same workers can be employed producing something useful.

156. Public Property.—Public property is of many different kinds. Roads and highways belong not to the owners of the adjoining property, but to the public.¹ In every city, there is likely to be a publicly owned library and a city hall in addition to school buildings and fire engine houses. Many communities have invested large sums in bridges, in public docks, or in other public property used for communication or transportation. In many municipalities electric light plants, systems of water works, and public railways or subway tunnels belong to the public.

Limits to
the rights
of property
owners.

Need of us-
ing wealth
wisely.

Property
owned by
state and
city.

¹ So long as this property is used for street purposes, it belongs to the state. When it is no longer needed as a highway, one-half reverts to the owners of property on either side of the street.

Property owned by the American nation.

Uncle Sam owns a great deal of property. At one time most of the land in the new states of the western Mississippi basin and other areas was public domain, owned and controlled by him. Most of this land was given to settlers. Unfortunately much of the other land was granted unwisely to individuals. Certain valuable forests, water powers, and water rights should have been retained by the public. The American people did not understand the need of keeping in their own possession natural utilities which no private corporation should have been allowed to secure. They should have begun many decades before they did the present policy of *conservation of natural resources*. However, the public property of the United States now includes not only public buildings, but also many rivers, parks, and forest reserves. Moreover, the national government still owns an immense amount of land upon which there are mineral deposits.¹

BUSINESS, PRIVATE AND PUBLIC

Contrast between past and present.

Why personal freedom is only a beginning.

157. Personal Freedom.—Two thousand years ago most people were slaves. Four hundred years ago most of them were serfs (§188). To-day practically all are free. From the individual point of view, personal freedom is the most important characteristic of the modern world. It does not give a man business ability, nor does it necessarily bring him business education, training, and skill. Personal freedom certainly does not make him a capitalist. It gives opportunities rather than accomplishes results. Whether these opportunities will be well used depends upon the person himself—his industry, his ambition, and his energy. Success depends also upon his surroundings. If a man possesses health, brains, and the desire to succeed, it is probable that he will secure education, even under difficulties, and will make unfavor-

¹ Private parties may lease coal lands and mine the mineral by paying a royalty to the national government.

able conditions help him succeed. Most self-made men of the present have come up from the ranks, and consider their poverty one of the greatest aids to their advancement.

158. Private Enterprise.—If a boy were obliged to follow in the footsteps of his father, it is doubtful whether he would go farther than his father did. When a society is divided into well marked classes, and a person's class is fixed by his birth, there is no real incentive for him to improve his condition. In the modern world classes are not separated in that way from one another, and a worker is allowed to choose the work that he wishes to do.

Never before have boys and girls had the chance that they have to-day to attend school and select courses that will be of the greatest value in preparation for a life career. Because American cities are growing and American business is expanding constantly, those who have the ability and can secure the money have as great opportunity for new enterprise as ever existed. America particularly encourages the invention of new machines and the development of new undertakings, chiefly by giving patents to inventors. If a man is uneducated, however, he can not undertake a business or profession requiring special training, such as law or medicine.

159. Competition and Monopoly.—If a person does the same thing that others do, he may be said to compete with them. If each is producing an article for sale, the one who produces the best article, most cheaply, will sell the most goods, other things being equal. In the business world competition is very keen, because it is possible to produce more than people need. The person who is indolent or careless produces little and receives less. Under competition he is likely to be replaced by others who do the necessary task and do it better. If there is competition, therefore, we strive to excel, not chiefly because we like to be first, but because the returns

Class distinctions yesterday and to-day.

Opportunities and limitations in selecting life work.

Extent and desirability of competition.

are greatest to those who can make their work really successful.

Nature of
and objec-
tions to
monopoly

If a person can produce an article far superior to any made by his competitors, he ceases to compete with others and may have a monopoly. If large corporations *control the output* of articles in their particular business, we say that they have a *monopoly* in that line (§ 28). Monopoly is control of a market by a producer or seller. A monopoly may, however, be an individual monopoly such as that held by an attorney or a surgeon who is much abler than any of his associates. Business men desire monopoly because they wish to command high prices and therefore make unusually large profits. The public fear monopoly since, as consumers, they do not wish to pay exorbitant prices.

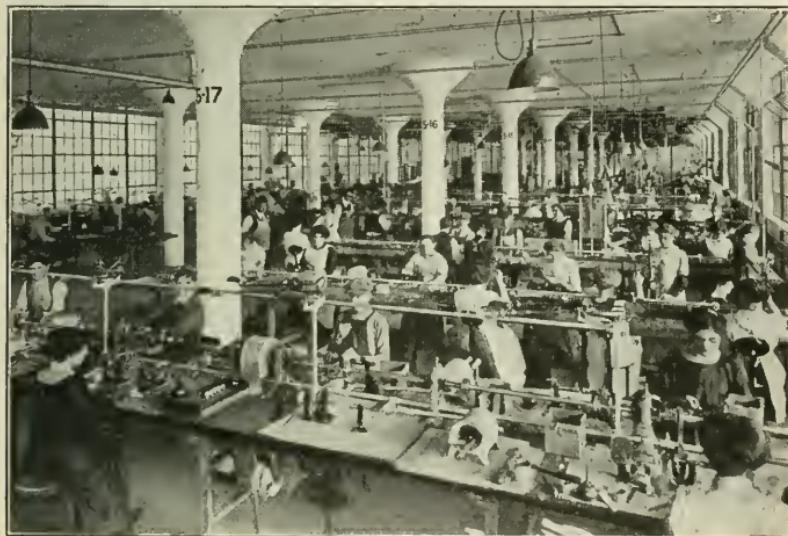
How most
modern
workers
have
become
specialists.

160. Large Scale Industry and Division of Labor.—When every family produced almost everything it needed, each man raised his own food, made his own clothing and shoes, in addition to the furniture and utensils of his home, and, with the help of his neighbors, built his own house. The worker to-day is not a jack-of-all-trades; he is a specialist. His specialty may be diseases of the eye, or corporation law, or the teaching of physics. It may be the specialized work of engineer, bookkeeper, or watchman, or simply one of a thousand processes into which the work of a factory is divided. The term *division of labor* is applied to work of the last type.

Why so
much
modern in-
dustry is
carried on
in large
factories.

It is possible to increase production greatly by a division of labor, a process through which each worker acquires skill and speed for his specialized task. As any work which is subdivided into a thousand, or a hundred, or even a dozen operations can not be done in a small shop or factory, modern industry naturally is on a large scale. The invention of machines, the improvement of machinery, and the increased size of machines is a further reason

for using large factories rather than small shops. As large factories and great combinations of industrial plants or transportation systems can not be owned by the ordinary capitalist, even if he is a millionaire, the state allows many investors to put their savings together in order to form a corporation.



DIVISION OF LABOR IN A LARGE FACTORY

161. Private Corporations.—A corporation is a group of persons legally associated and empowered by a government to act as one person in doing business or in performing some other social service. In the Middle Ages, when small shops were the only factories, every shop was managed by a master with the help of a few assistants and apprentices. Even a hundred years ago, most business houses were managed by a single individual. If he did not have sufficient capital or needed the expert advice of some friend, a *partnership* was formed. A personal business or a partnership suffers when the head, or one of the heads, dies. A *corporation*, on the contrary, continues

Why corporations are necessary in large scale industries.

indefinitely, because it is not dependent on any particular person or persons. It is made up of the stock-holders who furnish the capital, and it has a board of directors that direct its affairs and other officials selected



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THE LARGEST POWER HOUSE IN THE WORLD

by the directors. Practically all modern business on a large scale is done, therefore, through corporations. A very large corporation is usually called a trust.

Corporations are created by law, by the granting of *charters*, and ordinarily have numerous *legal privileges*. Their charters provide a plan for electing officials, explain how much capital stock may be issued, and limit the work which the corporation may undertake. When an individual tries to make use of a patent, he needs more capital than he usually can furnish. A corporation can not only buy up one patent, but it can secure a number of patents that are useful in many different processes. Corporations

Why the
public
should con-
trol corpo-
rations which
it creates.

are subject to *public supervision and control*. The government may prevent a corporation from charging excessive prices for its goods or services, and, if it tends to become a monopoly, may dissolve it altogether (§168).

162. Privately Owned Public Service Corporations.— Some private corporations have an unusually large number of privileges because they are expected to *serve the public directly*, and they can not do so unless they have special opportunities. For example, a street car company has the right to lay tracks on public streets, and it usually has a monopoly of the service which is given on those streets. It is allowed to charge certain rates, but it may not raise rates without special permission. By its charter and by law it is required to give uninterrupted service. Even in case of strike it must try to provide the public with cars.

What the street car is to a community or metropolitan area, the steam railway is to a larger territory. A railroad company has a special charter and numerous privileges. In a mountainous region it may have exclusive control of the best gaps and river valleys. If it wishes

What a
street car
company
must do or
can not do.

What a rail-
road may or
may not do.



Photo by R. J. Waters & Co.

CAR OF THE SAN FRANCISCO MUNICIPAL RAILWAY

to lay tracks within a city, it may exercise the right of eminent domain (§ 246) and force people to sell the property needed for its right of way. A steam railway is subject to public supervision in many ways, for example, it must adopt modern safety devices and may not charge higher rates than the government permits (§ 169).



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PURIFYING WATER—LARGE DISTRIBUTING PLANT

Public service corporations and common carriers.

We do not realize how much we depend upon local and general railway companies in transporting ourselves and the articles we need. It is evident, however, that railways are and should be *public service corporations*, which must give service corresponding to the amount paid, and must carry any passenger who wishes to travel and any goods which a shipper wishes to send. We call such organizations *common carriers*.¹

¹ If a passenger pays his fare or a shipper the freight charges, no common carrier can refuse to perform the service requested.

163. Public Ownership or Management.—Some of the public service work that is absolutely necessary for every community and nation is done, not by privately owned corporations, but through our governments. Two good examples of this type of public ownership and manage-

Public ser-
vice given
directly
through
government.



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DISTRIBUTION OF PACKAGES IN POST OFFICE

ment are furnished by municipal water plants and by the national post office system.

Almost all large cities in the United States own their water systems. There are two particularly good reasons for this. One is the fact that water is the most important necessity of life, and the second is that if water supplies are not protected, the water may contain filth or disease germs. In order to secure good supplies of water, American cities have incurred considerable expense in controlling lakes, rivers, and water sheds, and in building large con-

Water
plants as
examples of
municipal
ownership.

duits and immense reservoirs. Every street is provided with mains and every household secures its supply through its own lateral. In order that the health of a city may be as good as possible, municipal governments are interested in having a supply of water that is abundant and pure.

The post office as a governmental business.

In the days of Benjamin Franklin, only a few letters were carried by the public post office from town to town. At the present time, the post office does a business equalled by that of only a few private companies. It carries letters at a rate of two cents an ounce, magazines direct from the publishers for about a cent a pound, and parcels at a rate depending upon weight and upon the distance they are sent. In addition, the larger post offices issue money orders and have postal savings banks, in which small amounts may be deposited. The post office may not always have been well managed, but it is certainly the best example that we have of a national public business.

Agricultural agencies and methods of the government.

164. Government and the Farmer.—In connection with the national government at Washington, there is a *Department of Agriculture*, which helps the farmers, for example, by distributing free seeds. In most states there are *state agricultural colleges*, which give regular courses to farmers and others. In connection with each of these colleges the national government usually maintains one or more *experiment stations* at which experts study soils of that region and experiment with plants which may be of particular value to the farmers. In many states there are also vacation schools, which hold sessions for short periods, and demonstration trains, which bring to the farmers information on the latest methods in agriculture. In some sections only the younger farmers seem to be particularly interested in these opportunities, but in other localities farmers of all ages and classes make use of them.

The national government, either directly or through these local organizations, studies diseases of animals and plants. For example, it has attempted to stop the ravages of the Mexican boll weevil, which has threatened to destroy our cotton crop. The government also sends out explorers to find new kinds and varieties of plants. Wheat from Siberia and alfalfa from South America are good examples of plants which are superior, for cold and warm regions respectively, to those raised formerly. The government is constantly at work trying to develop better varieties of corn, wheat, and other valuable cereals or vegetables.

Some agricultural experiments made by government.



CORN GROWN UNDER SCIENTIFIC AGRICULTURE

PUBLIC CONTROL OF BUSINESS

165. General.—Every nation wants to produce as much wealth and to do as much business as possible. For that reason, it encourages individuals to save money, to invest it in corporations, and to do business on a large scale. As the chief object of any government is to protect its people, it is necessary that it should do more than simply encourage business. Our different governments, national, state, and local, must see that business does not injure the public. Many people believe that a government should limit itself to warding off economic dangers from which the citizens can not protect themselves. A few believe that *governments should aid business in every*

Attitude of different groups toward government and business.

way possible, provided that the public is fully safeguarded, contending that, if business is good, the public will be benefited.

Ways in
which gov-
ernment
can protect
and promote
business.

In doing business with one another, it is necessary for us to have *laws defining the rights and obligations of each party* to any transaction. This is the part of law known as the law of contracts. When one person makes an agreement with another, whether he is buyer, seller, or agent, he is making a contract. Since most business is done, not for cash, but on credit, it is necessary that the government should encourage and carefully supervise a good banking system. In these banks we deposit money and through them the business man draws checks for the payment of his bills. *A system of credit* is absolutely necessary for the development of business over extensive areas and on a large scale.

Regulation
and control
of indus-
tries.

We have already considered and shall soon study further (§§162, 167–169) ways in which the government controls trusts or public service corporations, such as the water systems and railways. In crowded districts it should either prohibit or limit very dangerous or objectionable industries, such as powder factories and gas works.

Early need
of tariff.

166. Policy of a Protective Tariff.—For a few years after we became independent of Great Britain, our national government did not have the right to levy tariffs¹ upon goods brought in from other countries. When our present Constitution was adopted and went into effect in 1789, it gave Congress the right to levy tariffs. In the preamble of the first tariff act, the statement was made that the tariff was not simply for government revenue, but to protect, and thus encourage, American manufacturers.

The argu-
ment for a
protective
tariff.

During most of the time since 1789 we have had protective tariffs. The plan of the protective tariff is this: when an American manufacturer is producing goods of a

¹A tariff is a list or schedule of imported articles with the rates of duty to be paid.

certain type which compete in American markets with similar European goods made by cheaper labor abroad, it seems necessary to give protection to the American manufacturer. If the cost of making any goods in America is forty per cent higher than it is in Europe, the foreign goods will undersell the American unless the importer pays a tariff duty of at least thirty per cent. With the freight costs, this extra charge will make the price of the foreign goods in this country at least as high as the cost of the American-made commodities.

Undoubtedly this system of encouraging American manufacturers is an important reason why the United States is the most important manufacturing nation in the world. We owe our industrial progress, however, to a very great extent, to our almost limitless natural resources, to "Yankee" inventiveness, and to the unusually high intelligence and skill of the American worker. During some periods the protective rates were unnecessarily high. Instead of simply protecting the American manufacturer, they encouraged him to be careless, because he did not need to be economical.

Advantages
and disad-
vantages of
our protec-
tive tariff.

167. State Anti-Trust Laws.—The *industrial corporations* mentioned above (§161) are organized almost entirely under state laws. It is necessary, therefore, that they should be controlled largely by state laws, especially as the national government has no direct control over industry. It is difficult for the state governments to do this because no large corporation or trust is likely to do business exclusively within the state in which it is chartered, and in some cases it does not attempt to do any business within that state.¹

Problems of
interstate
industrial
corpora-
tions.

¹ This serious evil is due to the fact that some states have made a business of encouraging corporations to take out charters from their state governments. These charters have granted powers which no state should confer upon a business corporation. The corporation was thus empowered to do business in other states without proper arrangements for control of the corporation.

Problem of state control of trusts.

Provisions and successes of state anti-trust laws.

Limited national control of industry.

Provisions and enforcement of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act.

When the control of one state is more lenient than that of another, large companies will take out their incorporation papers in that state. This policy makes it possible for a corporation to evade a strict corporation law and *makes it difficult, if not impossible, for any state properly to enforce a reasonably severe law for the control of corporations.* This failure is a loss to that state and a still greater loss to the entire country.

If there is competition in one city or area, a trust will try to undersell its competitors in that section by cutting prices there, although its prices elsewhere are still high. In a few states no large corporation or trust is allowed to charge a higher price in one locality than in another. Many of the state anti-trust laws prohibit monopoly. It is difficult, however, to enforce successfully an anti-monopoly law. To be sure, Missouri did prove that a number of small oil companies operating in that state were branches of the great Standard Oil Company. Texas made use of this evidence. It sued the Standard Oil Company because of violation of its anti-trust monopoly law and collected fines amounting to more than two million dollars. As a rule, it is difficult either to make or to enforce an anti-trust law which controls the great corporations without injuring the little business concerns. The whole problem of controlling the trusts by state laws is still full of difficulties.

168. National Anti-Trust Legislation.—According to the national Constitution, Congress regulates commerce among the several states, but industry is not mentioned because it is supposed to be completely under the control of the separate states.

In 1890 Congress passed what is known as the *Sherman Anti-Trust Act*, which prohibits not only monopolies but also combinations or conspiracies in restraint of interstate trade. This law has been enforced against many huge

corporations that have charged excessive prices or used unfair methods in dealing with the people who have purchased their goods. Some of these combinations, such as the Tobacco Trust and the Standard Oil Trust, were broken up, although the smaller companies of which the great combination was made have continued to do business as usual.

Within recent years the Sherman act has been improved¹. Corporations may not charge one price in one locality and an entirely different price in another section when the goods should be sold for approximately the same amount. Producers may not compel the middlemen who sell their goods to sell these goods exclusively or to sell them at a stipulated price. Because one person sometimes held a hundred or more offices in different corporations, and in that way controlled directly one great business, and indirectly a score of others,² no individual is now allowed to be a director in more than one huge bank or trust or railway company.

169. Control of Railways.—Railways are likely to be monopolies. If a town has but one railway, that railway certainly has an almost complete monopoly of the transportation of goods to the town or away from it. But railways are absolute necessities to the business world in these days when goods are produced in one section and used in others. Sometimes the railroads have made a business of overcharging for the transportation of freight. Moreover, they have charged higher rates from town A to town B than for a longer distance from town A to town C.

The states first tried to control the railways by investigating the books of the companies and making public the facts. If the rates were unnecessarily high, or if

New anti-trust legislation.

How railways sometimes take advantage of public necessity.

Use of publicity methods by the states.

¹Among the newer national anti-trust laws, the Clayton Act is the most important.

²This arrangement was known as "interlocking directorates."

unfair charges were being made between towns or between shippers, public pressure could then be brought to bear upon the railways to force them to make the rates just and fair. Most states now have railway commissions which can fix the maximum rates that any railway may charge.



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THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION

Powers and methods of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

In 1887 the national government passed its first interstate commerce law. It created an *Interstate Commerce Commission*. This commission now consists of seven members.¹ It has the right to investigate the rates charged by railroads for any goods transported from one state to another. It compels all railroads to serve as common carriers. *Its most important power is to fix the maximum rates* which shall be charged for freight between any two points.² The Interstate Commerce Commission

¹A new interstate commerce commission law was passed in 1906.

²When it has decided what the rate shall be, the rate goes into effect. If the railway thinks this maximum is too low, it is obliged to bring suit before the national courts, and it must win its suit before the rates may be raised. However, the railways do make appeals to the commission directly to raise the rates that they are allowed to charge.

has done a valuable work in regulating the freight business of the railways in all parts of the country.

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Questions

1. What is wealth? What is personal property? Distinguish between land, ordinary or artificial capital, and goods ready for consumption. Show that in order to create enough wealth for good standards of living we must have artificial capital and we must work reasonably long hours.

2. If production is the creation of wealth, what is distribution? Among what persons is the product distributed? What does each receive. Why is the product sometimes distributed unjustly?

3. What is private ownership? Name some advantages, negative and positive, of private ownership of property. Why are people who have property likely to be better citizens than those who have not? What are taxes? What is the right of eminent domain?

4. Are the following usually owned privately or publicly: Houses, bonds, water mains, pencils, motorcycles, plows, electric light poles, policemen's uniforms, dining room tables, textbooks, business blocks, post offices, street cars, factory machinery, locomotives? Distinguish between private goods that are capital and those that are not.

5. Name kinds of public property owned by cities. What public property is owned by Uncle Sam? What do you understand by the conservation of natural resources? Learn what has already been done to conserve our supplies of coal, our forests, and our water supplies.

6. Contrast the personal freedom of to-day with the status of the common people two thousand years ago and four hundred years ago. What are the advantages and the limitations of personal freedom? Why is a country that permits private enterprise a good one in which to live?

7. What is competition? What is monopoly? How much of the output or product must a large business corporation have before it has a monopoly?

*Primarily for teachers.

8. When is a man a specialist? Explain the expression "division of labor." What is large scale industry? What are the advantages and the disadvantages of large scale industry and of division of labor?

9. Define the term "corporation." In what respects is a corporation better than a partnership? If a corporation has legal privileges, to how much public supervision and control should it be subjected? What kinds of private corporations have the largest number of legal privileges, and why? When does such an organization become a public service corporation? What is a common carrier?

10. In what businesses do we have public ownership or management? Give reasons why our governments own and manage those public utilities. Tell all that you can about government ownership or management, so far as it affects us in this community. If there is a publicly owned water system, give its history, explain where the water is obtained, give location of reservoirs, tell about rates, and give some idea of its revenues, profits, and successes. Give similar information for any other publicly owned utility of this community.

11. Is there a state agricultural department in this state? Have we a county farm bureau? Has an agricultural experiment station been established in this part of this state? How long since a demonstration train has passed through this community? Has a farmer's institute ever been held in this county? Explain what work has been done, or is being done, for the farmer by the government or by any of the state or local agricultural agencies.

12. Why must government and the public protect business? To what extent should there be laws to define our business relations with other people, including the rights and obligations of parties to a contract or any transaction? Under what conditions is it necessary or desirable that business should be promoted? What businesses should be prohibited?

13. What is a protective tariff? Why have we had protective tariffs most of the time since we have had a national government? When a protective tariff is unnecessarily high, who pays the bills?

14. What is a trust? Why should the most important anti-trust laws be made by the states? Should a monopoly or a semi-monopoly be allowed to charge more in one part of a state, where there is no competition, than in other parts of the same state where competition exists? Give provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust

Law. In what other ways does the national government control trusts at the present time?

15. Show how railways are absolutely necessary to the public and therefore should be public service corporations and, if necessary, monopolies. Explain why railroads should be common carriers and must not overcharge shippers of freight. How did the states try to control the railroads through publicity? Give provisions of the present Interstate Commerce Act. In what ways can the Interstate Commerce Commission control railroads that do business in more than one state?

CHAPTER XIV

THE WORKER AND SOCIETY

1. Woman and child workers
 - a. Child labor
 - b. Women who work
 - c. Protection of women workers
2. Employee, employer, and the public
 - a. The worker as a citizen
 - b. Disadvantages of an individual worker in making a contract with a modern employer
 - c. Capital and labor
 - (1) Strikes and lockouts
 - (2) Industrial arbitration
 - (3) Collective bargaining
 - (4) Better coöperation between employer and employee
3. Economic rights
 - a. The right to work
 - b. Unemployment
 - c. Protection of the worker against dangers
 - d. Accidents and workmen's compensation
 - e. The right to a living wage
 - f. Protection against economic monopolies

WOMAN AND CHILD WORKERS

170. Child Labor.—Most of us may not realize how many children work for pay. The number under sixteen years of age was formerly about two millions, that is, five per cent of all wage-earners. Most of these boys and girls, however, were fourteen or fifteen years of age. The largest number of child workers was then in cotton mills of the south Atlantic states. Nowadays, there are probably quite as many engaged in street industries and in canneries.

Children in industry.

Physical,
economic,
and social
losses due
to child
labor.

The child that works in a factory is not able to go to school; he does not play enough. When he grows up, he is not only ignorant, but he is less developed physically than he would have been without this factory life. If the child has displaced some older and more experienced employee, he has probably increased unemployment. Even if he has not forced some older person out of work, his competition with that older worker has lowered wages for some adult whose standard of living was already very low.

State child
labor laws.

Most of our states have now passed child labor laws prohibiting work during school time for children under fourteen years of age. Young persons under eighteen are not allowed to work more than eight hours a day or at night. Unfortunately these laws are not enforced very carefully.

Number
and occupa-
tions.

171. Women Who Work.—Before the Civil War comparatively few women were engaged in industry. At present there are nearly ten million women workers in America. In the olden days domestic service was about the only vocation open to women. It is still the leading occupation for them. Many are employed in factories at work requiring skill, tact, and deftness (§138). The number in the teaching profession is very large. Much office work is done by women assistants, and in some occupations, such as the operation of telephone boards, men are almost never found.

Reasons for
low wages
of women.

Women workers are usually more numerous than the situations open to them. They have not been organized, nor until 1920 did most of them have the ballot with which to protect their rights. In consequence their pay has ordinarily been low, and they have often been forced to toil in factories that were unsanitary.

172. Protection of Women Workers.—The old factory was dark, dirty, and noisy. No seats were provided for

employees and there were no rest rooms. The women were forced to toil nine, ten, possibly twelve hours a day, and sometimes seven days a week. Half of our states now have laws limiting the hours of women workers, possibly to eight hours a day, but more frequently to nine or ten. In most factories, seats and rest rooms are now provided and there are other arrangements for the comfort of employees.

Hours and
factory
regulations.



WOMEN IN A FACTORY

Almost one third of the states have passed minimum wage laws for women. Under these laws no employer is allowed to pay a woman employee less than a certain amount per week. Apprentices may be kept at a smaller wage for a short period. There are some difficulties in the plan of the minimum wage. Even if a girl needs fifteen dollars a week in order to live properly, she would prefer ten or twelve to nothing; and, if her services are

Minimum
wage laws
and
problems.

worth only ten or twelve dollars to her employer, he will certainly not pay her fifteen if he can avoid doing so. The public must try to give every girl such an education that she is capable of earning at least a minimum wage.

EMPLOYEE, EMPLOYER, AND THE PUBLIC

What society must do for the worker.

173. The Worker as a Citizen.—The employee is a citizen as well as a seller of labor. He is an employee because he has labor to sell and because he has made with some employer an agreement by which he exchanges his services for wages. Society is interested not only to have him do as much useful work as possible, but also to see that he is in good health, and is a happy, contented, and useful citizen. If he works under conditions which are more or less inhumane, he can not be such a citizen. If his pay is so low that he can not buy the necessities of life for himself and his family, he will become physically weak, and his children may become public charges. Moreover, instead of being a good and useful member of society, he will be discontented and ready to do anything that he can to oppose the government or to injure society. A man with a grievance, real or imagined, is good material out of which to make a revolutionist or an anarchist.

Dangers from unfair treatment to workers.

Inability to bargain on equal terms.

174. Disadvantages of an Individual Worker in Making a Contract with a Modern Employer.—In order that a worker shall make with his employer the kind of contract that he ought to make, he should be able to bargain with his employer on nearly equal terms. In the past, there has been no such equality. Ordinarily each individual has made a separate contract with his employer. This has not been fair if each master has employed many hundreds or thousands of workers.

Why the worker is at a disadvantage.

The laborer has for sale a perishable commodity, his labor; he can not make up to-morrow the work that he might have done to-day. Moreover, his labor can

not really be separated from him. Since there are usually more laborers than jobs, he can not afford to lose a position or an opportunity. The situation is more necessary to him than his work to the employer. Since he has little money laid by for a time of need, he has probably taken the first work that opportunity offered, and usually on the employer's own terms. Because he has so little reserve cash, the longer he waits, the less he is able to demand. He does not dare to bargain, therefore, and hold out for better terms, but takes what the employer offers him. Therefore he must toil under unfavorable conditions rather than not work at all.

175. Capital and Labor—Strikes and Lockouts.—A *strike* is a concerted temporary withdrawal from work of a group of employees for the purpose of securing more favorable contracts with their employers. Formerly, strikes were chiefly for the purpose of obtaining higher wages. Nowadays, strikes are used almost as much to gain recognition of the union in order that workers may no longer be at a disadvantage in making contracts.

We sometimes get the impression that most workers are out on strike a large part of each year. On the average, only one worker in four is involved in a strike in a period of twenty-five years. With all their disadvantages—and these are very serious, especially in connection with public utilities—strikes have undoubtedly raised wages, not only for the strikers, but for workers in similar occupations. The possibility of a strike frequently has induced an employer to pay a higher wage than he otherwise would have granted.

When an employer closes his doors in order to bring the workers to his own terms, he is resorting to what is called a *lockout*. When a group of buyers refuses to purchase goods from some seller, we have a *boycott*. Lockouts and boycotts, like strikes, are methods of industrial

Definition
and objects
of strikes.

Extent and
results of
strikes.

Lockouts
and boy-
cotts.

warfare used by one party to gain advantage over another.

Objections
to industrial
warfare.

176. Industrial Arbitration.—Because strikes and lock-outs mean loss of time and delayed production, because they lead to bitter feeling and give excuse for a certain amount of lawlessness, the public is trying to find less dangerous remedies for the evils that they are supposed to meet.

Forms and
successes of
industrial
arbitration.

Industrial arbitration is the name given to methods of securing industrial peace. Most states have some form either of *conciliation* or *arbitration*.¹ In industrial disputes few states compel either party to submit the question to a state board or committee. In only eight states does the law insist that, if a dispute is voluntarily submitted to a board, the report of the board must be accepted by both parties. In one or two older states, the work of the boards of industrial arbitration has been rather satisfactory, but in most of them little has been accomplished.

Nature of
collective
bargaining.

177. Collective Bargaining.—When workers act as a body in making their agreements or contracts with their employer, there is collective bargaining. We have a similar action when an official of a labor union represents the workers and makes with the employer an agreement which binds the men of the union. As we noticed above, the recognition of the union, or collective bargaining, has been one of the chief causes of strikes in recent years.

"When a third party in the form of a private or a public board brings employers and employees together with a view to settling some dispute between the two parties, the process is called conciliation or mediation. Arbitration implies an authoritative board or court which is empowered to make an investigation and to settle the dispute. The suggestions or findings of a board of conciliation may or may not be accepted; the mandates of a board of arbitration are binding upon both parties. Arbitration may be voluntary or compulsory, and primary or secondary. Arbitration is voluntary when both employers and employees agree beforehand to accept the awards of the board. Arbitration is compulsory when the government compels the interested parties to submit the case to the board and to abide by its findings."—CARLTON, *History and Problems of Organized Labor*, 232.

When a single employee deals individually with an employer of many men, he is at a disadvantage (§174). If it is desirable that the employers should be organized to protect themselves, as most of them are at present, it is equally desirable that the workers also should organize. An employer can not force organized men to bid against each other. If the unions are stronger than the employers, it is the employer who needs to be protected from his men. When a group of employees can compel the master to employ only union workers and to consult the bosses of the labor group before any employee is "hired or fired," we have the *closed shop*. If the closed shop uses its power arbitrarily, as did many of the old time employers, it is as great a menace to labor and to the successful development of American business as was the arbitrary domination of the worker by the master. It is the duty of the public to see that each side gets a square deal and that one does not take advantage of the other.

178. Better Coöperation between Employer and Employee.—As we have seen,¹ the work of production is carried on by the coöperation of many persons. It is necessary for the employer and employee to work together; and both must coöperate with the public that buys the goods and with the men who furnish the land, the materials, and possibly other commodities needed in the general work.

The employer who is short-sighted tries to take advantage of his employees, that is, to exploit them. He may try to speed up the work to a rate greater than an ordinary employee is physically able to stand for any length of time. Possibly he underpays them or he makes them work with antiquated and dangerous machinery at risk of life and limb. However the employer tries to

Problems to
be solved,
dangers to
be avoided,
duties to be
performed.

Necessary
forms of
coöperation
in business.

Losses to
the em-
ployer in
attempted
exploitation.

¹ See especially §§26–29.

take advantage of his men, the chances are that, in attempting to get too much, he will lose their respect, their support, and their interest.

How a poor-spirited employee injures himself.

On the other hand, the employee who shirks or is careless, who willfully tries to injure the employer or to destroy his materials, in the long run injures himself and his fellow workers rather than the man who pays him wages. His carelessness may lead to accident, and the accident may injure a companion far more than it does the employer. The man who shirks by reducing output inevitably lowers wages, because the employer can not and will not pay his men more than their work is worth to him. A man who is sitting on a branch of a tree ought not to saw it off between himself and the trunk.

The saving value of co-operation.

Employer and employee should realize, therefore, that, if they work together, each will help himself as well as the other. This is a difficult lesson for employees to learn, just as it has been hard for some teachers and many pupils. Even to-day, in some classrooms, teacher and pupil seem to think that if one does things which the other doesn't like, he is doing something excellent for himself. Teacher and pupil, employer and employee must learn to avoid friction, not only to coöperate, but to pull together with a will.

ECONOMIC RIGHTS

The need and the problem of the willing worker.

179. The Right to Work.—Except the rights to live and be free, no individual right is greater than the right to work. In fact, it is impossible for ninety-nine adults out of a hundred to live unless they work. No society is more unjust than that which denies to a willing worker the right to earn a living for himself and for those dependent upon him. It is not always possible for a man to engage in the occupation that he prefers. He may not have the education or the personal qualities which make

him a good worker in that business. Society, however, owes him a training such that, if he has the ability, he can become a producer in that line.

All men have a right to work in clean and healthful surroundings, and for reasonable hours.¹ They should have one day a week of leisure, preferably Sunday. Workers are entitled to a decent wage, a wage which will at least give them all the necessities and some of the comforts of life. No employer can ask any man to expose himself to unnecessary dangers. If the business is a particularly dangerous one, the employee has a right to such protection as the human mind can invent.

Conditions
under which
men should
or should
not work.



MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

180. Unemployment.—In the modern world at all times a large number of men and women can not work, do not work, or will not work. Figures seem to show that one worker in forty is idle most of the time, and that at

Extent of
unemploy-
ment.

¹ Investigations have proved that in most occupations a nine hour day, with a six day week, is more productive (that is, the *total product* is greater) than is a ten or eleven hour day.

least one in five lacks employment from one to six months every year.

Personal causes of unemployment.

In some cases, failure to secure and keep a job is due to the worker's personal characteristics or habits. He may be ignorant, careless, or lazy; or he may be unwilling to work for any length of time at any particular occupation.¹

Industrial causes.

Men may be unemployed because they are engaged in seasonal industries and therefore are compelled to remain idle part of the time. They may belong to a class of workers who are more numerous than are needed in that locality.

Government employment bureaus.

The national government has had plans for reducing unemployment, but has not taken effective action. In twenty-three states, state or municipal employment bureaus have been provided. A sharp contrast exists between the lack of government employment agencies in America and the numerous local governmental employment bureaus in most European countries.

Economic value of good conditions.

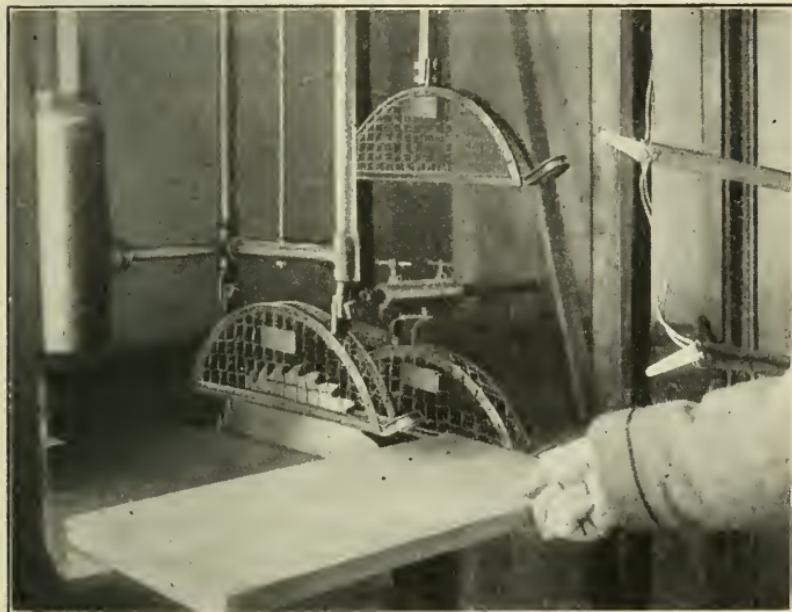
181. Protection of the Worker against Dangers.—To work successfully, one must be in good physical condition. When one is sick, work is a hardship; when one is well, it should be a pleasure. A laborer who toils in a dark, damp, unsanitary place never can do his best. A person who works in a bright, sunny room at an interesting task does not need to be driven, nor does he watch the clock. The employer who studies the needs of his men usually finds that it pays to have conditions as satisfactory as possible.

What can and what may not be done in dangerous industries.

It is only a century since the English poet, Thomas Hood, wrote, "Oh God! that bread should be so dear, and flesh and blood so cheap!" A score of years ago this cry might have applied to America, because the public did not demand protection of life and limb in industry. Many businesses are dangerous. There is no known method by which railroading can be made safe

¹ We call such a person a casual laborer.

for all workers at all times. Mining exacts a heavy toll from those who toil in the depths of the earth. The best that can be done for these men is to use safety appliances, regardless of expense. It is interesting to note that the law for safety coupling devices on railways did not go into effect until many years after it was passed. A time limit for adopting it was set, but was extended because it



PROTECTED MACHINERY

Photo by Brown Bros.

was expensive to equip cars with the new life-saving apparatus, and railroad managers could not agree upon a single device. In exceptionally dangerous industries employers must not expose men to avoidable risks; they can not protect the worker, of course, from his own carelessness. An accident due to fatigue, however, is really preventable. Hours should be shortened if prolonged action causes exhaustion and exposes to accident a worker or the people under his direction.

Precautions
in factories.

Within the ordinary factories and for ordinary workers much has been done in the past ten or fifteen years to protect human life. Fire escapes are usually required and large factories or high office buildings must be partly fireproof. Where machinery can be guarded, safety devices are provided. The workers are compelled to take suitable precautions. They must not wear clothing that will be caught easily in moving parts of machinery. In order to put a premium on the adoption of these safety appliances, the employers are compelled to pay any one of their workers who is injured.

Numbers of
killed and
injured.

182. **Accidents and Workmen's Compensation.**—Tens of thousands of American workers are killed every year while they are at work. The exact number we do not know because many states do not keep accurate records of losses of that kind. At least a half million employees are injured seriously every year. Probably three or four millions are out of work for a day or more because of minor accidents.

Practical
operation of
employers'
liability.

Until recent years the whole burden of the loss fell upon the workman and his family. If he was injured seriously, he lost a great deal of time. If he was killed, his family was permanently deprived of his earnings. All that a worker or his family could do was to sue the employer in the hope of getting damages.¹ As it frequently took years to decide a case and the worker could not afford to continue a lawsuit so long, usually a small sum of money was accepted outside of court as full compensation for the injury received.

Laws re-
garding
workmen's
compensa-
tion.

Within recent years practically all states have adopted laws for what is called workmen's compensation. When a worker is injured, his employer immediately reports the fact to a state board. The worker then applies for compensation. The board investigates, finds out how serious

¹ It was possible for an injured employee to sue because, legally, the employer was liable for damages because of accident in his employ.

the injury was, whether the worker is partially or completely disabled, and for how long a time he has been unable to work. It then fixes a payment per week which he shall receive during the period of disability. In case of death, an amount equal to three years' wages is paid to his widow. Payments are made by the employer, but he usually counts them as part of his costs and charges higher prices for the goods that he sells.¹

183. The Right to a Living Wage.—If a worker must make his choice between large wages and pleasant working conditions, the majority will choose the wage. The reason for this is simple. In all history and even in America to-day, the majority of the people are not able to earn large sums. Many of them do not receive enough for the necessities of life; a much larger number have a wage that covers little besides their actual necessities (§50). It is probably true that a fair percentage of the people of Europe never have enough to eat. Unfortunately, even in America, at least ten per cent are hungry because of lack of proper nourishing food.

Failure to earn a decent wage may be due to several causes, two of which are particularly important. The first of these is *a lack of ability*. Abraham Lincoln said that God must be very fond of the common people, because he had made so many of them. Some of these people undoubtedly are below par physically and do not have the mental capacity to earn a large amount. Their work is not worth much to any employer, because their intelligence is not high or their health is not good. If these people are willing to take work that they are capable of doing, there is no reason why they could not be trained to do that work fairly well.

Members of a second group have plenty of ability but

¹ In most states, the employers are compelled to insure against accident. The payment is then made by the insurance company, which may be a bureau of the state government.

The wage problem of the ordinary worker.

Low wages due to lack of ability.

Lack of training and education as cause of low wages

lack proper training. They are intelligent, but uneducated. Many people are doing work much below their capacity either because they can not make good use of their training or because they are not well prepared. In some cases this is their own fault, in other cases it is the fault of the school system.¹ The old phrase, "the best is none too good," is true of education as well as of other things. We can justly criticise a school system that does not hold the normal boy and girl and train them to earn a living wage.

How combination affected prices.
Need of protection of the buyer.

184. Protection against Economic Monopolies.—A large scale producer (§160) can manufacture goods cheaply, but it does not follow that he will sell them at a correspondingly low price to those who wish to buy. Before corporations formed combinations, they competed with one another and therefore kept prices low. After trusts were organized, there was comparatively little competition and *combinations were able to raise prices.* In some instances a great corporation or trust became a monopoly (§159).

"Putting the screws" on the producers of raw materials.

A huge corporation, especially if it is a monopoly, not only can overcharge the public, but it can also buy its raw materials at a particularly low price. If these materials are produced by many persons, the large manufacturing concern will persuade them to compete with one another, or it will pay a low price to those that will sell and refuse to purchase from the others.

Monopoly control of labor supply.

A trust that monopolizes a particular trade will be able to secure workers at a much lower wage than a number of smaller corporations would be compelled to pay. The reason for this is obvious. If a skilled worker can find employment only with this one trust, he will be obliged

¹ Because they did not get what they wanted, or had trouble with their teachers, some of those boys and girls dropped out years before they should. In many cases the school courses have not given the kind of training which a boy or girl has a right to expect and demand.

to take what they will give. If he might work for any one of a hundred companies, he would have a better chance of getting good pay.

The government should make and enforce laws for the protection of the public, the producer of raw materials, and the worker against any monopoly or against any corporation or group of persons who underpay their men, take unfair advantage of the people from whom they buy materials, or overcharge the public.

Some people
who should
be pro-
tected.

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Questions

1. Give some idea of the number of American children who work for pay. What does a child lose if he works all day? What is the effect of child labor on wages and unemployment? What

*Primarily for teachers.

child labor laws have been passed in this state, and to what extent are they enforced?

2. How many wage-earning women are now engaged in industry in the United States? Name the leading occupations in which they are found. Give reasons. Of what advantage is the ballot to the woman who works?

3. Compare the old hours of women workers with those in force at the present time, especially in this state. What is a minimum wage law? Is there a minimum wage in this state? If so, what is the least (*a*) that can be paid to regular workers; or (*b*) that can be paid to apprentices? What dangers exist in the minimum wage?

4. Why must we not think of the employee simply as a seller of labor? Under what conditions only can a laborer be a good citizen? Name three ways in which the individual worker is at a disadvantage if his employer is one of an organized group or a man who employs a large number of men.

5. Give a definition of the term "strike." What was the purpose of strikes formerly? What is it at present? Are strikes common now? Why? What has been the influence of strikes upon wages? What is a lockout? What is a boycott?

6. What is meant by industrial arbitration? If a dispute is voluntarily submitted to arbitration, should the report of the arbitration board be accepted? If so, why?

7. What is meant by collective bargaining? What are the advantages of collective bargaining? If there is no collective bargaining, what is the danger where (*a*) the employer dominates the situation, or (*b*) the labor group has the closed shop and uses its power arbitrarily?

8. In what ways may a short-sighted employer exploit his workers? Explain how the employee who shirks, is careless, or destroys his employer's materials injures the workers rather than the capitalist.

9. Why is the right to work one of the greatest of all rights? Why does society owe a man the opportunity to work? Name some of the general rights of workers.

10. Under what conditions is the best work done? Name three dangerous industries, and show why they are dangerous. What has been done to reduce the number of injuries in these industries? Give some idea of the number of persons injured annually while at work. What is meant by workmen's compensation? Give provisions of the law of this state, and explain how it is used.

11. Why have we the problem of a living wage, even in this

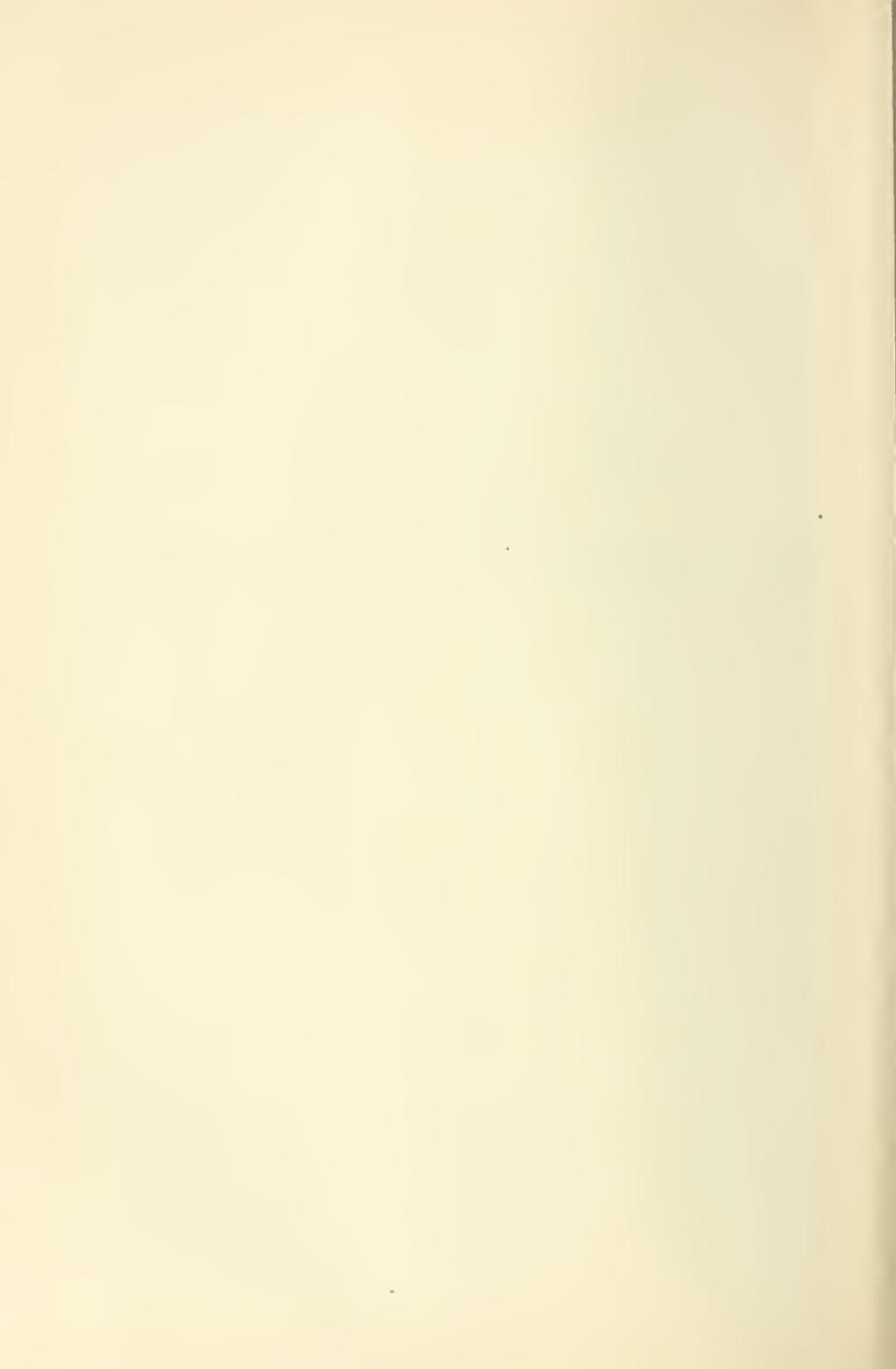
country? Explain how lack of ability is a cause of the problem. What can be done to remedy the lack of training which is another cause of low wages?

12. Why have combinations raised prices? Show how a huge corporation or combination has an advantage in securing raw materials. What advantage has such an organization over workers unless workers are especially well organized? In your opinion what should the public do about the trusts?



PART V

THE CITIZEN IN RELATION TO GOVERNMENT



CHAPTER XV

CIVIL LIBERTY IN GENERAL

Individual relationships

1. Ordinary civil rights
 - a. Need of protection against individuals
 - b. Need of protection against government
 - c. Personal freedom and freedom of action
 - d. Freedom of speech and of the press
 - e. Religious liberty
 - f. Civil suits and criminal cases
 - g. Open and fair trials
 - h. The jury system
2. Some civic obligations
 - a. Connection between rights and duties
 - b. Obedience as a civic responsibility
 - c. Military service and jury duty

185. Individual Relationships.—The individual member of society is not only a citizen of his nation, but also a member of a large number of other groups. As we have already noticed, some of these groups are *social*, some *economic*, and some *political*.

Types of
relationships.

Civil liberty is citizen liberty, that is, it is the liberty of the individual citizen. The term liberty is usually limited to our rights, but it might also include our duties. As explained in Part I, we have rights in our relations with other people, and with the rights we have duties.

Interrelations
of
rights and
duties.

ORDINARY CIVIL RIGHTS

186. Need of Protection against Individuals.—In a complex society such as that in which we live to-day, some members insist upon their rights, but absolutely refuse to perform their duties. If a person of this type

Persons
who refuse
to fulfill
obligations.

makes a contract with another, he always tries to see how much he can get for himself and how little he can do for the other party with whom the agreement was made. If he is building a house, he will substitute poor materials for the better which he is supposed to use. If he is employed by another man, he will work as little and as poorly as possible. In fact, he may even go so far as to secure goods and refuse to pay for them. It is necessary for any group, community, or society to protect its members against such individuals.

How one person may take advantage of another.

It is not always possible for a government or a society to make general laws which do safeguard our interests against those who try to take advantage of us. However, we can refuse to pay for work that is very badly done. If a person sells us a piece of property and the property is not what it is represented to be, we may possibly get our money back or punish the person who cheated us. (§191). We need protection against arbitrary government as well as against individuals.

Bills of rights in English and colonial history

187. Need of Protection against Government.—In the past, few governments were democratic. Consequently, they were more interested in helping the class to which the rulers belonged than in protecting the rights of others. The history of the English people for several centuries was to a large extent the story of a struggle, by those who did not have control of the government, against the arbitrary rule of the king and his advisers. Magna Carta, the increasing powers of Parliament, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights limited the powers of the English monarch and gained rights for the citizen of England before 1700. In the American colonies during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the colonial assemblies strove constantly to limit the authority of the royal governors.

When we adopted our national Constitution and framed

our state constitutions, we adopted *bills of rights* which protect citizens against the aggressions of the rulers whom we select for our governments. Most of these provisions were copied from the old English laws, but some have been added which aim to keep our officials from interfering with other liberties of the people.

American
bills of
rights.

188. Personal Freedom and Freedom of Action.— Aside from the right to life itself, the greatest right which anyone can enjoy is personal freedom (§157). In the

Freedom in
the past
and in the
present.



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CROWD PROTESTING AGAINST FOOD PROFITEERING

twentieth century we take it for granted that a person shall be free, but until a few years ago many Europeans did not. Even in colonial America, we heard about white bondmen, and in Europe the partially bound man was the rule two or three centuries ago. Some of these men, in fact, were bound to the soil and had so little freedom that they were called serfs—and a serf was little better than a slave.

Choice of
home and
occupation.

Just as the right to life is of little value without health, so personal liberty is of practically no value unless we can move from place to place. If we live in a beautiful city, we do not care particularly for such opportunities; but if we are living in a dirty or vile district, we should be glad of a chance to move into pleasanter surroundings. Almost as important as the right to move about is the right to decide what work we shall do. Although it is impossible for any man who is uneducated to undertake work which requires education, or for a person who is clumsy to follow an occupation which requires skill; nevertheless, every man ought to have freedom in selecting his life work. If he is to be a free man, he should have the right to decide where he will live, what he will do, how he will spend his leisure time, and to what hobbies and amusements he will give his special attention. By right he ought to have leisure.

What is
meant by
freedom
of speech.

189. Freedom of Speech and of the Press.—It would be a misnomer to call our country “the land of the free” if a person were liable to arrest and imprisonment for speaking his thoughts.¹ Certainly no liberty is possible unless freedom of speech is granted. There is no greater difference between democratic America and the recently abolished monarchies of central and eastern Europe than this freedom to speak one’s opinion on all subjects, including the right to criticise a government and its policies.

Freedom of
the press.

Freedom of the press is almost as necessary for a self-governing people.² If our newspapers can not give the

¹ By “act of Congress the right of freedom of speech does not extend to anarchistic utterances, or speeches or writings aimed against order, the established government, and exciting to assassination or crime.”—*STIMSON, Popular Law Making*, 301–302.

² In practically all states the constitutions assert that persons who seek, in speech or in public print, to injure the reputation of others shall be liable to punishment. State laws specify that in a suit for *libel* the truth may be introduced as evidence and that malicious intent on the part of the speaker or writer may be proved.

facts of anything that takes places in business, society, or government without being punished for their audacity, we shall soon lose all semblance of real self-government.¹

190. Religious Liberty.—It is eminently fitting that in this country, where religious freedom was permitted when religious persecution existed everywhere else in the world, our state bills of rights should provide for the fullest liberty in religious matters. No state allows its government to dictate to any one what church he shall attend or compels him to contribute to the support of any church, the establishment of state churches being everywhere forbidden. No person is disqualified from holding office or exercising civil rights because of his religious views, although a few of the older states make belief in the Diety a prerequisite for holding certain offices. Nevertheless, socially dangerous practices such as polygamy are punished as crime, even when permitted or sanctioned by a religious sect.

Extent
and limits
of religious
freedom.

191. Civil Suits and Criminal Cases.—Our rights are protected in the courts. If we believe that we have been injured by anyone in ordinary dealings, we bring against him a suit to secure damages. A person who has built his fence upon our property and refuses to move it may be forced to do so. Those who break their contracts can be compelled to pay damages. These cases are known as *civil suits*. They can be brought only in case our governments have passed laws which cover offenses of that character. The suits are tried in the courts. The person who brings the suit is called the *plaintiff* and the person against whom the suit is brought is named *defendant*.

Nature of
and parties
to civil
suits.

¹In past centuries only a few newspapers were published; they were either controlled or severely censored by the government. In Europe to-day censors regulate very definitely what shall and what shall not be published by the press. In America the government does not interfere with the freedom of the press or suppress news which would be unpleasant to public officials; on the contrary we tend to err on the other side.

Public
nature of
criminal
cases.

Civil suits are not brought against those who do us serious or malicious injury. When a person steals from us or tries to burn our property or does us physical harm, action is taken against him by the public. Such action does not constitute a civil case because *the injury is of a criminal nature*. Criminal charges are brought by public officials, since the criminal act injures society as well as the individual. The government wishes to protect all of its citizens and is anxious to see that the criminal is punished. If the offense is a comparatively minor one, it is called a *misdemeanor*; if a serious one, a *felony*. A person guilty of felony is called a criminal. There are many laws defining crime and for each offense a suitable punishment is provided.

Need of
open and
fair trials.

192. **Open and Fair Trials.**—Boys and girls of this school hope they will never know anything about crime from personal experience. However little we personally may be associated with criminals, we still agree that, if a person is accused of an offense, he ought to be considered innocent until he is proved guilty, and he ought to have every opportunity to prove his innocence. In America nowadays, we have open and fair trials, but a century ago in continental Europe, it was customary to consider a man guilty until his innocence had been proved. In order to prove the guilt of an accused man, public officers tortured him and even the witnesses called to testify in his behalf.¹

Safeguards
for persons
arrested .
and brought
to trial.

In America we insist that a person shall not be arrested except upon a *warrant*, unless he is caught in the act or the evidence against him is overwhelming. If he is accused of a misdemeanor or of a minor felony, he has the right to give *bail*. If bail can be furnished by him or his friends, he is then allowed to remain at liberty until the case is called against him; he is not held in jail awaiting

¹ See ASHLEY, *Modern European Civilization*, §§ 95-96.

trial.¹ In order to insure fair trials, American law provides that an accused person shall be *tried by a jury* of his fellow citizens and not by a judge who may know a great deal of law, but who may be little influenced by human emotions.



A JURY TRIAL

193. The Jury System.—The ordinary jury² is called the *petit jury* and consists of twelve citizens. No one is accepted for jury duty if he is related to the accused person or directly interested in the case in any way.

Purpose of a jury.

¹ The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* compels a court to investigate the charge and determine whether the prisoner should be held for trial.

²A *grand jury* is composed of from twelve to twenty-three persons. It holds secret sessions either for the purpose of investigating the causes of crimes which have been committed, bringing *indictments* against those whom it believes guilty; or for the purpose of investigating the condition of departments of government and their expenditures of money.

A *police jury* usually consists of six men. It is used to determine the guilt or innocence of persons accused of committing misdemeanors.

Witnesses are examined in order that the jury may learn all possible facts regarding the crime and the persons who are supposed to be connected with it.

Use of the
jury system.

The jury system is in use throughout the United States. *In criminal cases there is always a jury* unless the accused wishes to be tried in some other way. Many civil cases are decided by judges in order to avoid the trouble of getting a jury.

Advantages
and dis-
advantages
of jury
trial.

A juror is more likely to be kind-hearted and therefore more lenient than a judge. Jurors are supposed to use common sense and to understand the circumstances under which the accused person might have been guilty of performing the deed of which he is accused. Jurors are often unduly influenced by the eloquence of an able lawyer, and they, in consequence, fail to convict men who undoubtedly are guilty. This may easily happen since a unanimous verdict is necessary before a person may be punished for a serious crime.

SOME CIVIC OBLIGATIONS

The two
sides of
relation-
ships.

194. Connection between Rights and Duties.—A citizen's rights grow out of his associations with his fellows, and his obligations are no less an outgrowth of the same relationships. If his civic relations with other persons are simple, as in the case of a trapper who twice a year trades pelts for food and ammunition, the civic rights which he uses are comparatively few and his obligations also are limited. If he is an unmarried employee living away from home, both his rights and his duties are fewer than those of a married business man. For the same reason, a man of affairs, who is the head of a family and a person of importance in his church and community, has numerous and heavy personal and civic obligations that correspond with his numerous and important rights.

195. Obedience as a Civic Responsibility.—The first duty of a good citizen, like the chief duty of a good soldier, is to obey. The first obligation which rests upon a member of society is therefore *to know what obligations he has*; for, if he is ignorant of his duty, he undoubtedly will fail to do at least part of it.

Like a soldier, the little child must obey practically without question. In some instances it is impossible to explain to him the reason for an action; he must simply be asked, and compelled, to do as he is told. Most children will obey reasonable requests without complaint, just as most citizens will obey just laws without protest.

In many instances the ordinary citizen can not fulfill his whole duty if he simply obeys orders; he must use his own knowledge and judgment. He may be law-abiding by habit; but may not have developed any ideals either of good conduct or true obedience. If he knows how to obey only when he is told to do or not to do something, he will never obey in any real sense. He is not obeying if the best that he does is not to break laws, whether those laws are made by men or are natural laws. Real obedience means that he must do the things demanded by high personal standards and by high civic ideals. He must have respect for others and regard for the property of others. There must be consideration for social welfare rather than regard for his own selfish interests. To obey in spirit as well as in letter, one must be an honest, intelligent citizen; otherwise one fails in the most fundamental duty of all, patriotism.

196. Military Service and Jury Duty.—There was a time when the most important single duty which a citizen could render to society was that of military service, for that was the chief means by which a citizen could protect his country. The Roman soldier was expected to serve in his army through twenty campaigns as a foot soldier

Need of knowledge regarding obligations.

Need of unquestioned obedience.

Obedience to higher laws and to ideals.

Importance of military service in the past.

or through ten as a horseman. Before the World War most European countries forced their young men into a standing army for a period of three years and kept them in a reserve force for a long time thereafter. In America we have never had a large standing army, nor have we had military conscription in time of peace. When we went into the World War in 1917, we used a selective draft (§ 311) in order that the young men of the nation



U. S. Official Photograph

INFANTRY ATTACKING GERMANS DURING WORLD WAR

might be allowed equal opportunity, without fear or favor, to serve their country in the great cause for which they were called. What has been necessary in the past may again be necessary in the future. Even yet this world is not a peaceful sphere.

In time of peace, justice is more important than protection against foreign nations. In all times, men and women must expect to do their share not only in obeying the laws themselves and in the prevention of unnecessary law-breaking by others, but also by giving a square deal to persons who are accused of offenses. As we have

noticed, the jury is in use throughout the United States for this purpose. Those who are serving the people in any official capacity are excused from jury duty because they are aiding the public in its work. Other men and sometimes women are, and should be, subject to public service, including jury duty.

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Questions

1. What is meant by the statement, "civil liberty is citizen liberty?" How can we secure protection against people who refuse to fulfill their obligations? Why do all of us want to be as free as possible? If society is well organized, do we have more or less freedom than we would have otherwise? Explain the difference between civil liberty and political liberty.

*Primarily for teachers.

2. Trace the opposition of the English people to their government, naming the three great documents of the English constitution. Why do we need, and why do we have, American bills of rights?

3. Contrast personal freedom of the present with limitations of freedom in the past. Name characteristics of freedom of action at the present time. What is freedom of speech, and what are the limits of that liberty? Explain the term "freedom of the press." What is libel? What possible dangers might even now interfere with freedom of speech or of the press? Which is worse: yellow journalism that knows no restraint, or a newspaper carefully censored? Is either necessary?

4. How recently has freedom of petition been denied (*a*) in this country; (*b*) in other countries? What is meant by religious freedom? Give some examples of religious persecution. What has been done to secure and develop religious liberty during the last hundred and fifty years?

5. Name ways in which one person may take advantage of another. What is a civil suit, and what are the names of the parties to a civil suit? What is a crime? Why should crime be punished by the government rather than by individuals?

6. Why do our constitutions explain in considerable detail the rights of a person accused of crime? Explain the privilege of the writ of "habeas corpus." State the difference between the grand jury and the petit jury. What is bail?

7. What is jury trial, and how long have English speaking people had it? Why is jury trial so important a part of the American system of administering justice? What dangers are there nowadays that some people will be treated harshly and others, just as guilty, be dealt with leniently? Is there any possibility that by protecting an accused person too much, we protect the public too little? If so, how may we avoid the danger?

8. If possible, visit a court room during a trial. Learn how men and women were secured for possible jury duty. What is a peremptory challenge? Describe the methods used in examining witnesses and in cross-examination. Did you hear either of the attorneys "sum up" the evidence on his side? What is the judge's "charge" to the jury? Who renders the "verdict"?

9. Explain carefully the connection between a right and its corresponding duty. (Use the teacher and a pupil in the class as an example.) Why is obedience a civic responsibility? Show what type of obedience is required most in childhood; in youth; in maturity. Explain your answer.

CHAPTER XVI

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL LIBERTY

1. New social rights and obligations
 - a. Protection of the child and the home
 - b. Public health and sanitation
 - c. Educational opportunities
 - d. The good citizen and the social criminal
 - e. Civic development
2. Political rights and duties
 - a. Political democracy
 - b. Suffrage
 - (1) History
 - (2) At present
 - c. Political parties
 - (1) Organization
 - (2) Bosses and rings
 - (3) Work
 - d. Primaries and nominating conventions
 - e. Elections
 - f. Problems of political democracy
 - (1) Opportunities and obligations of the voter
 - (2) The leaders in a democracy

NEW SOCIAL RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS

197. Protection of the Child and the Home.—When our ancestors declared their independence of Great Britain, they protested against arbitrary government. In their constitutions they included bills of rights (§187) which protected certain rights of the individual against government officers who might interfere with them. Only in recent years have we come to realize that the most important rights are those we have in the home, in school, and in business. These must be safeguarded by society.

Development
of the
social idea
of positive
rights.

Agencies
for child
protection.

Problems
of home
protection.

Unquestionably children form the largest class or group whose needs are great and who are unable to protect the rights growing out of those needs. No child can protect himself from dangers, no child can give himself the opportunities which he must have in order to become a well developed citizen. He needs the help of parents (§§ 32-34), of the community (§ 288), and of society (§§ 8-9).

As the hope of the nation is in its children, the hope of the nation must be in its homes. The majority of the American people today live in cities. Most of them do not have separate houses, and a large percentage live in small apartments in rather unpleasant tenements. One of the great curses of modern civilization is the broken home. The most common cause of broken homes, divorce, has already been studied (§§ 46-47) and need not be reconsidered. If the rights of the child are to be safeguarded properly, the Ameri-



INTERIOR OF A SHACK—A POOR HOME
FOR A CHILD

can people must give more attention to problems of the home.

Lack of
proper
health pre-
cautions in
past ages.

198. Public Health and Sanitation.—For its own protection, society is anxious to reduce the amount of sickness, to conserve public health, and to prolong useful

human life (§ 219). A few centuries ago epidemics spread rapidly, causing the death of thousands and even hundreds of thousands. In those times, city streets were very dirty and there were no proper means of caring for sewage and for garbage, which thus became a menace to health. Both in town and country, people were accustomed to use wells, into which filth often drained. The good old days of our ancestors were not necessarily healthful days, because only the rugged survived.

Until recent years, little attention has been paid to the most serious health problem of all, that of saving the lives of little children. Even to-day, in some civilized countries, one child out of every four or five dies in his first year. This excessive mortality has been reduced through medical attention, through clean homes and pure food, but especially through better supplies of milk. The health of adults is also protected by cleaner streets, by the removal of garbage and other wastes, and by sewer systems. The supplies of water in cities are frequently purer than can be found in any country district. Food is inspected at the plants where it is prepared or canned, and at the market or shops in which it is sold. Dealers are no longer allowed to use poisonous or semi-poisonous preservatives. In short, the public is waking up to its duties and responsibilities in the protection of public health (§§ 220-223).

199. Educational Opportunities.—In another part of this book, we have studied a very important subject, school citizenship. A nation that gives its boys and girls opportunities to study and practice school citizenship is a nation that has gone far in the development of its schools and of its own democracy. Centuries ago there was no school education for girls. Even boys were not allowed to learn the three "R's," unless they were planning to be churchmen, to whom a little education was an absolute

Means used
for the
protection
of public
health.

Why edu-
cation and
democracy
have
developed
together.

necessity. In the modern world *education and democracy have developed together*, because without popular education democracy is impossible. It is scarcely a half century since women were first admitted to colleges and universities. The majority of students in our high schools to-day are girls, and the number of women in colleges is only slightly less than that of men. It can thus be seen that American schools are training women to take a much larger place in the life of society than they did a few years ago.

In a democratic country, education must necessarily be *free* and *public*. Moreover, it must be *compulsory* through the grammar schools for those who are capable of doing work of that kind. It should not be too technical, but, on the contrary, it should not be too theoretical.

School training should be sufficiently practical to prepare a boy or girl to earn his or her own living. A trade should not be taught, but a youth should be prepared to make good progress later in whatever occupation he selects. Education must be broad enough to fit the needs of every class. Although almost every high school course should prepare for college, a high school must be far more than a preparatory institution. Every community owes to its youth both academic and technical instruction.

200. The Good Citizen and the Social Criminal.—For the normal citizen, rights and obligations must go together. Moreover, good citizenship must be measured by the emphasis placed upon obligations. The greatest citizen of every community is the one who really does most for it, not the one for whom most is done. The most distinguished presidents are not those who have asked most of the people, but those who have done most for the good of the nation.

Only four classes of American citizens are entitled to rights without being asked to do much in return. These

The kind
of educa-
tion that a
citizen
needs.

How good
citizenship
may be
measured.

are the little children, "the lame, the halt, and the blind," the sick, and the aged. Because of their age, physical disability, or mental defects, these persons are unable to contribute their share to the general welfare. They are exempt from most of the obligations which the normal citizen must perform.

One conclusion, and only one, can be drawn from these statements: those who insist on rights and refuse to meet the corresponding obligations fail in a sacred trust. They are social criminals. They have taken from loving parents, from earnest friends, and from a beneficent country all that each could offer. In return they have been selfish wasters, gaining profit by others' loss, and injuring all who stood in their path. Their fault may have been, in the beginning, the result of ignorance, but their failure is nothing less than their unwillingness to live up to their obligations.

201. Civic Development.—It is a commonplace that all schools should train citizens for democracy. It is not so well understood that our schools should train useful citizens in democracy. It is one thing to teach a boy what qualities a good citizen should possess and what share the best citizens take in their government. It is quite a different matter to make him realize that he is now, while attending school, a true citizen. As an adult he will have the privilege of voting, together with a share in the life and work of society, that he can not enjoy as a minor. Nevertheless, his life as a citizen does not begin when he is twenty-one, nor does it consist largely in the casting of ballots. The relationships he has now are almost identical with those which he will have when he is older. *Civic virtues are not one thing for the adult and another for the youth.* Those qualities which are civic virtues in the man or woman and in the public official are equally virtues in the right-minded student, whether he be follower or leader.

Classes
that have
rights
without
obligations.

The social
criminal.

The schools
as training
ground in
democracy.

How
students
can be
trained in
good ci-
zenship.

Training in democracy in the schools does not limit itself to student self-government; it covers absolutely every relationship and activity in which the boy or girl takes part. Civic development can never be solely for the future, but must also be for the present. If present relations, opportunities, and obligations are properly understood, the student will be a good citizen and not simply be prepared for good citizenship. Civic development, then, ought to be one of the first duties of every school or society, and the development should be attained through practice rather than through precept. If a youth obeys simply because he is compelled to do so, and not because he is trained in doing the right thing in the right way for his own sake and for its own sake, he misses one of the finest opportunities that every high school ought to give. In order that a pupil may develop, not *into* a good citizen, but *as* a good citizen, he must know what good citizenship is, must have chances to practice good citizenship, and must be encouraged to grow with the years, until he has reached the highest standard of civic development.

POLITICAL RIGHTS AND DUTIES

A simple
standard of
political
democracy.

202. **Political Democracy.**—The term democracy has usually been limited to political democracy, that is, to participation in government. The ordinary standard by which we judge whether a nation has democracy is the *right of suffrage*. If very few people in any country are allowed to vote, we speak of the government as undemocratic. In the past, we have always referred to a government as popular if most men have had the ballot. Nowadays we do not call it democratic unless women as well as men are permitted to vote.

A second
standard of
democracy.

A better standard by which to judge whether a country is democratic is the *share which voters actually have in*

government. Until recently many European countries have had manhood suffrage, but the voters took little part in government. A century ago, even in America, the President, Vice President, and representatives in the lower house of Congress were the only national officials chosen by popular vote¹, and in some states only members of the legislature and a few minor officials were elected. There has been as great an increase in the number of officials for whom we can vote as there has been in the number of people that are allowed to take part in voting. In fact, a few years ago there were so many names on the ballot that the ordinary voter could not possibly know many of the candidates and could not, therefore, make wise decisions as to the best man for each office. The twentieth century movement has been to limit the number of elected officials in state, county, and city in order that voting may be both simpler and more democratic. This limitation has been brought about by the *short ballot*.

Another standard by which we may judge political democracy is *the part which the people have in making or enforcing laws.* Public opinion is unquestionably the best means by which the people get what they want. Public opinion, however, is not always effective. A group of politicians may easily defeat the popular will, if they are organized and have control of the government, and if they are not responsible to the people. *Direct legislation,*² including the initiative and referendum, is necessary, because otherwise the wishes of the people may be ignored by their elected representatives who are working for themselves or their party, not for the public.

In order that a government should be democratic, *the public officials must be responsible to the people.* If officials may do as they please, and the people have no

Ways of
improving
democracy.

Relation of
responsible
government
to democ-
racy.

¹The voters did not vote directly for these candidates nor do they now, (§ 259).

²On direct legislation, see Ashley, *The New Civics*, §§116-120.

check upon them, the government may appear to be democratic, but is in fact most undemocratic. If a public official is guilty of actual crime, he may be punished in the same way as any other offender (§192). If his offense is a political one of a semi-criminal nature, and the office is an elective one, he may be removed by *impeachment*. If the office is appointive, and pressure can be brought to bear upon the officials who have the authority, he may be removed. The *recall*¹ is used in a few western states and cities for the removal of officials whom the public is unwilling to retain longer in office. Ordinarily, the public depends upon frequent elections as the best check upon its servants. If the term is short, and an elective official wishes to retain his office, he is usually careful not to antagonize his constituents. There is danger, however, that he will do what is popular rather than what is right in order that he may not be defeated when the next election occurs.

203. History of Suffrage.—During colonial times only those Americans who owned land were allowed to cast ballots. In the North, land of a certain value was required of voters, and, in the South, an area of a certain size. In addition, no one could vote in colonial America unless he were a Protestant.

Sometimes we get the impression that the Revolutionary War was a democratic movement. This impression is incorrect. It was a long time after the American Revolution before there was much change in the system of voting. To be sure, along the frontier, all men were voters because land was cheap and it was possible for them to secure it. Consequently the frontier states of a century and a quarter ago, Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee, led the way in giving voting rights to most men. During the second quarter of the nineteenth century, the privilege

Voting in
the Ameri-
can colo-
nies.

Universal
manhood
suffrage
during the
nineteenth
century.

¹Ashley, *The New Civics*, §121.

of voting was extended to practically all white men who were citizens and to some aliens, provided they planned later to become citizens. After the Civil War, suffrage was extended to all negro men; since 1870 manhood suffrage has been universal.

During the last half century, there have been changes to limit the right of voting and also to extend it. In some states men have been excluded if they could not read or write, or, in a few southern states, if they did not own property. Before 1900 women were allowed to vote in some of the mountain territories and states. In 1910 Washington and in 1911 California adopted woman suffrage. The new woman suffrage movement spread rapidly throughout the West, and in 1920 the United States adopted the nineteenth amendment to the national Constitution. By this amendment women may vote on the same terms as men throughout this country.

Recent restrictions and extensions of suffrage.

204. Suffrage at Present.—There are three practically universal requirements for voters. The first is *residence*. No one is allowed to vote unless he is a bona fide resident of the precinct, county, and state in which he seeks to cast his ballot. The second is the *age* requirement, since all voters in each state must be at least twenty-one years of age. The third requirement is *citizenship*. Three-quarters of the states permit only full-fledged citizens to take part in elections, but the others grant the elective franchise to aliens who have declared their intention of becoming citizens.

Universal requirements of all voters.

Some classes, such as aliens and minors, are directly or indirectly debarred from voting. In addition, some individuals are excluded from sharing in elections, although they belong to groups whose members may vote. For example, persons who are insane or otherwise incompetent are universally excluded, as are men convicted of some serious crime, for which they have

Persons excluded from voting.

not been pardoned. Inmates of public institutions and paupers sometimes are debarred from the exercise of the elective franchise. As stated above, some states have tried to raise the intellectual standard of voting citizens by an educational qualification for all voters.

Place of the
parties in
American
government.

205. **How the Political Parties are Organized.**—We speak of American government as democratic. In organizing our governments and in electing officials, the people of the nation are divided into political parties. *Our government is representative government through political parties*, two of which have always been especially important. Each party is supposed to include all of the people who hold the same views in regard to the kind of government we should have, the policies our governments should favor, and the limits of the work they should do.

The
permanent
party com-
mittees.

Each of these political parties is very well organized. At its head is a *national committee*, made up of one representative from each state. Coöoperating with this national committee are forty-eight *state committees*, and working with them is a *committee in each county* in each state. If the counties are large or rather thickly populated, there may be one or two sets of permanent committees below the county committee. Because the committees of a political party work together like the parts of a piece of machinery, we are accustomed to speak of the organization of a party as "*the machine*." Besides these permanent committees, each party holds *nominating conventions* (§ 208).

Nature of a
political
ring.

206. **Bosses and Rings.**—It is necessary that political parties should be organized; it is not necessary that the machine organization should work for itself rather than for the public. Sometimes a group of politicians form what is known as a *ring*. They are called by this name because, when standing in a ring, no one can be considered responsible for anything the group does.

"In a ring there is usually some one person who holds more strings in his hand than do others His superior skill, courage, and force of will make him, as such gifts always do make their possessor, dominant among his fellows. An army led by a council seldom conquers; it must have a commander-in-chief, who settles disputes, decides in emergencies, inspires fear or attachment. The head of the ring is such a commander. He dispenses places, rewards the loyal, punishes the mutinous, concocts schemes, negotiates treaties. He generally avoids publicity, preferring the substance to the pomp of power, and is all the more dangerous because he sits, like a spider, hidden in the midst of his web."¹

What a boss is like.

Boss rule is objectionable chiefly because it represents an extreme concentration of power, with comparatively little chance of fixing responsibility, although in the long run no boss can maintain his position in the face of popular opposition. When bosses and rings really control the officials who are supposed to govern us, this rule has very aptly been called "invisible government."

Objections to boss rule.

207. The Work of the Political Parties.—As stated above, the parties have permanent committees and conventions. When a convention is to be held or when a campaign is to be conducted, the permanent committees work very hard. Formerly, campaign orators and other partisan workers gave their services to the cause; expecting if the party was successful, to be paid by offices. Those were the days of the "*spoils system*," and most politicians believed that "to the victor belongs the spoils." To-day comparatively few workers are repaid by appointment to office.

Partisan workers, past and present.

Raising money is one of the most difficult tasks encountered by the national or state chairmen and the county associations. A few years ago the party in power

Ways of raising money.

¹ Bryce, *American Commonwealth*, 4th ed., II, 113.

was accustomed to demand tribute of every officeholder under its control. Large sums were assessed upon corporations and other business organizations which would be benefited if the party won the election. Party revenue to-day comes chiefly from party supporters who are public-spirited enough to make voluntary contributions. However, unless it is probable that a party victory will benefit those who contribute, the task of raising money is a difficult one.

Advantages
of winning
elections.

Each party wishes to win every election, partly because the winning party will have the right to make appointments for thousands and possibly tens of thousands of offices. Moreover, a party that wins a national or several state elections will control government expenditures amounting to several billions of dollars yearly. The party can often aid its friends and injure its enemies in the spending. A politician in power may become the godfather to the needy of a large district. Political leaders of large vision, supported by a successful organization, can carry out policies of lasting benefit, not only to the party, but to the public. Not the least of the benefits of political parties has been the uniting of people of every state, irrespective of ancestry and interest.

Use and im-
portance of
primaries
for nomi-
nation of
candidates.

208. Primaries and Nominating Conventions.—When the voter goes to the polls on election day, he votes for candidates who have been nominated by the different parties for the offices that are to be filled at that election. These candidates are selected by an elaborate and important process. They may be named in nominating conventions, but they are usually selected in primaries. Ordinarily those direct primaries are in the form of *primary elections*, but even that is not the beginning. Each candidate or his friends must circulate petitions and secure the signatures of a certain number of voters before his name may appear upon the primary ballot. No ballot

contains the names of the candidates for more than one political party. At the primary election, the voters of each party are allowed to select one nominee for each of the offices to be filled at the next regular election.

Once in four years each party holds a national *nominating convention*, which selects the party candidates for President and Vice President (§ 259). In a few of the older states, nominations for state offices are still made

Use of
nominating
and other
party con-
ventions.



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THE REPUBLICAN NOMINATING CONVENTION
CHICAGO, 1920

through party conventions. Conventions may also be called in states, counties, or cities for the purpose of drawing up platforms, deciding on party policies, and doing other things that the party wishes or needs.

209. Elections.—Voters are usually compelled to register before they may vote. On the election day set by law, the voter goes to the polling place within his precinct, or voting district. A ballot is furnished to him

Process of
election.

by one of the election officials. In the seclusion of a booth, he makes a mark opposite the names of his choice. He also marks "yes" on those amendments or proposed laws which he favors and "no" on those which he opposes.



A POLLING PLACE ON ELECTION DAY

After folding his ballot, he hands it to another election official, who deposits it in the ballot box. Polls are usually kept open ten or twelve hours. The votes are counted openly by the election officials after the polls are closed. Usually the results are known the next day.

What may
be de-
manded of
every voter.

210. Opportunities and Obligations of the Voter.—As our country is governed by the people, the success of its government depends upon the earnest and intelligent action of the voting citizens. No voter can be held responsible if our government falls into the hands of those who desire personal advantage at the expense of the public, but every voter is to blame if he has not done

the best that he can to elect responsible officials. If he remains away from the polls because of indolence or indifference, if he votes in a way that his conscience does not approve, if he casts his ballot without understanding the principles that his candidates represent and without informing himself concerning the merits of the different nominees, he is remiss in his duty. Although it is true that the individual may, without success, make every effort to obtain good government, nevertheless, where misgovernment exists within the United States, the fault is the people's. A majority either desires unfit rulers or will not take the trouble to "turn the rascals out."

To some officials, public office is not a public trust but a private opportunity. They appoint their friends to the highest salaried government positions, they obtain commissions or contracts for government work, and they allow business men to conduct their work in peace only in case they pay the required price. Besides these political pirates, who fortunately are not numerous, there are large numbers of incompetent officials. These men waste the people's money and mismanage the business of government. If a large proportion of the public offices are filled with inefficient or corrupt men, the voters are responsible. The task of reform should not be one of supreme difficulty, because the great majority of our public servants are honest, intelligent, and sincere. On occasion, however, the corrupt few are so much in earnest and so active in promoting their own interests that they can be removed from power by nothing less than an irresistible demand of the voters. In political matters, as in some others, "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty."

211. The Leaders in a Democracy.—No nation or community can organize its government without leaders. *There is no conflict between the idea of leadership and the idea of democracy.* In spite of the great changes that

Responsibility for corrupt and inefficient government.

Need of leadership in a democracy.

have occurred in the form of government and in the work of modern society, in spite of the great increase in the part that the people take in those governments, and in the active work of every human group, it is still true, as Longfellow said,

“For some must follow, and some command,
Though all are made of clay!”

Some different types of leadership.

The problem of democracy and good citizenship is not, therefore, to get rid of leaders, but to find the right leaders. Because a man is willing to lead is no proof that he is the best person in the particular position for which he is chosen. A man who may have great ability as an organizer might be a very poor legislator. A man may be an excellent executive or first-class administrator, but the very qualities which fit him for administrative duties would probably unfit him for service as a judge.

Means of preparing and selecting leaders.

A wise system does not leave to chance either the *preparation* or the *selection* of its leaders. By giving education to all, we try to discover who can profit most by the training offered in our high schools and colleges. We must have the best possible methods of finding those who are especially qualified to serve as leaders in different positions and use those methods even if they seem rather undemocratic. Otherwise, we may have mob rule and poor leadership instead of democratic government. To potential leaders we must grant experience in different types and kinds of leadership, training them for future work in broader fields. We must see that no handicap of poverty or ignorance prevents a man from securing the highest place he is capable of filling well. We must see that those who can, must.

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* Primarily for teachers

Questions

1. Why are important rights positive rather than negative in character? Name three reasons why child protection is the most important of all social rights. In what ways should the home be protected?
2. What do you understand by "public health"? Compare the sanitary situation in a town of a few centuries ago with that in the modern city. Name three ways in which the former excessive mortality of children has been reduced. Name four in which the health of adults has been protected.
3. Why have education and democracy developed together in the modern world? Explain why education in a democratic country must be free, public, and compulsory. Give reasons why ordinary education should be neither too technical nor too theoretical.
4. What classes are entitled to rights without assuming the corresponding obligations? What is a social criminal? Democracy in the schools should include what training?
5. What do you understand by political democracy? By what standard do we ordinarily judge whether a people are democratic? Name a better standard for judging democracy. What part does public opinion play in political democracy? Why can not a country be democratic unless its officials are responsible to the people?
6. Give the history of suffrage from colonial times to the present. Give three practically universal requirements of all voters. State the provisions of the United States Constitution that deal with suffrage. What are the requirements of voters in this state?
7. What do you understand by a political party? What different committees does every political party have? Show how they work together like a piece of machinery. Why does a political party need money? How does it secure that revenue? Name some of the advantages secured by the party that wins at the polls. To what political party do the following belong: President, majority of members of United States Senate, governor, and state senator from this district.
8. What is a "ring"? Name some of the powers exercised by a "boss." What are the chief objections to boss rule? What do you understand by "invisible government"? How is it possible for us to have democratic government under the party system?
9. What is meant by a direct primary? Explain the form of a primary ballot. Show the importance of the primaries in the

American system of government. Describe the work of a nominating convention.

10. Is registration required for voters of this community? Give the election days for the following: President of the United States, governor of this state, county officials, elective city officials. Explain the form of the ballot used in this state. State the process of voting in this locality. If possible, give the number of the voting precinct (district) in which you live and the location of the usual polling place.

11. In what ways may a voter fail to do his duty? Is it worse to sell one's vote positively for money or negatively for a game of golf? Explain your answer. What can we do with officials who make public office a private opportunity rather than a public trust?

12. Why do people usually think of democracy as an organization without leaders? What kinds of leaders does a democracy need? What part can education and experience play in the preparation of leaders?

CHAPTER XVII

THE PROTECTION OF THE PUBLIC

1. Public safety
 - a. The problem of crime
 - (1) Lawlessness and crime
 - (2) Prevention of crime
 - (3) Punishment of crime
 - (4) The juvenile court
 - b. The fire problem
 - (1) Fire losses
 - (2) Fire rules
 - (3) Fire fighting
2. Health
 - a. The value of human life
 - b. Control of disease
 - c. Disposal of waste
 - d. Pure milk and meats
 - e. Pure food laws
3. Housing
 - a. The housing problem—general
 - b. Condition of many American tenements
 - c. Tenement house reform

PUBLIC SAFETY

Disregard
for law—
old and
new.

212. Lawlessness and Crime.—Since the World War the spirit of lawlessness has been more common than it was before. Compared with the total population, there are more murders to-day than there were fifteen or twenty years ago. Petty offenses also are more numerous. The loss of life from automobile accidents has become serious; reckless driving constitutes a new element of offense and represents a new type of offender. Disregard for legal rules and regulations among drivers of autos is notorious throughout the country.

It is difficult to state the exact meaning of the word crime. It may be defined, however, as an offense against society which is recognized as such by the law, and punished accordingly. It can be seen from this definition that an offense is not a crime simply because it is objectionable or injurious to people. Such an act becomes criminal only when a law has been passed which calls it a crime. Even if the act is a crime legally, it is really not

Definition
and punish-
ment of
crime.



Photo by Brown Bros.

POLICE QUELLING RIOTERS

treated as criminal unless there is a penalty attached to the breaking of the law that makes it a felony.

213. Prevention of Crime.—All cities have policemen to enforce the laws and to maintain order. A police force is organized to keep people from committing crimes quite as much as to arrest offenders. Every county has a sheriff, with deputies, to arrest offenders and enforce the

Purpose of
a police
force.

law. If a county is made up of townships, there are usually local police officers called constables.

Different types of police officers.

Police departments consist chiefly of detectives, patrolmen, and traffic officers. The detectives make a business of investigating crimes in which the criminal is unknown. They study the case, try to locate the offender, and gather evidence of his guilt. The patrolmen are organized in two or three squads and are assigned to different beats. They are on duty for the purpose of preventing crime and of aiding those who need information or other help. The patrolmen are usually ready to take a risk or sacrifice their own lives for a child in danger. Traffic officers are on duty at street corners where travel is heavy. By enforcing the rule that autos and wagons shall go in only one direction at one time, they prevent congestion and accidents. If they are discourteous to those who use the streets, it is probably because many Americans pay little attention to rules made for the regulation of traffic.

Trial and punishment of offenders.

214. Punishment of Crime.—Any person accused of crime may demand a jury trial. He is tried openly, his own witnesses testify in his behalf, and he is not obliged to testify against himself. Every opportunity is given for an accused person to prove his innocence. If convicted, however, he is sent to some county jail or state penitentiary to serve the term for which he has been sentenced. Usually these institutions provide some kind of work, in order that the prisoner may not be kept in solitary confinement and in idleness.

Prison methods and desirable reforms.

Unfortunately, most of our prisons are not organized and managed according to twentieth century methods. Instead of studying the criminal and finding out the physical, mental, or moral reasons that led the offender to commit the crime, our prison authorities are usually satisfied to hold him within its walls and try to keep him busy. The majority of criminals are probably of a low type

mentally. Each offender should be examined and studied carefully. Prisoners should be allowed to earn something for the support of their families. Those who have stolen or destroyed property should be compelled to pay the owner an amount equal to his loss. Moreover, the whole system of punishing criminals should be so organized that those who can be reformed are given opportunities to make a new start. Society owes to itself, if not to its criminals, a system of punishment which shall reduce the amount of crime, protect society more perfectly, and give the offender a better chance to become a fairly decent citizen.

215. The Juvenile Court.—The old saying, “An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure” applies well to crime and criminals. Certainly no person is guilty of crime unless he *intends* to commit a serious offense, is mentally old enough to understand that he has been guilty of a felony, and is therefore responsible for his acts. Young boys and girls and adults of low mentality are not responsible. Since the majority of real offenders among children, as well as among adults, are mental defectives, they must be treated as such and not as criminals. If necessary, they must be kept in institutions or homes where they will have little chance to injure others.

Few juvenile offenders are guilty of serious offenses. The acts with which they are charged may have been caused by some boyish excess of spirits or girlish thoughtlessness. The right kind of training and education in the home and in the school can and should reduce the number of youthful pranks that seem to be misdemeanors.

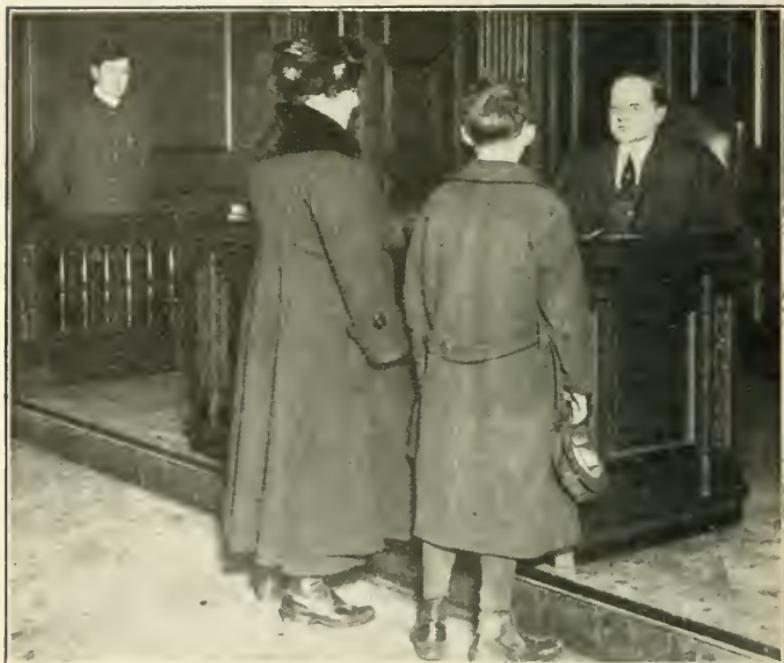
In most of our large cities youthful offenders are not tried in regular courts. A special judge takes charge of all cases involving boys and girls. The child is not treated as a criminal; no charge is brought against him, and his case is not tried by a jury. With his accuser

What constitutes an offense from the standpoint of the offender.

Nature of most juvenile offenses.

Hearing in a juvenile court.

and sponsors, he meets the judge in his chambers. No outsiders know about the accusation, and the child, unembarrassed by the presence of policemen, spectators, or newspaper reporters, has an opportunity for a heart-to-heart talk with the judge.



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IN A JUVENILE COURT

Treatment
of juvenile
offenders.

Ordinarily the child, if guilty, is placed upon *probation* and is obliged to report at regular intervals to the court. If he is still of school age, he is kept in school; otherwise, employment is secured for him, and he is visited by the probation officers and friends. If he has no satisfactory home of his own, one may be found for him. As far as possible, he is placed on his honor. If the juvenile court judge or probation officers use good judgment, they are rarely disappointed in the boys and girls.

216. Fire Losses.—In the United States most dwellings and many stores and office buildings are constructed of wood. The interior of many brick or concrete buildings consists largely of wood. Very few are really fireproof or even partially fireproof. Because of the inflammable materials used, because of defective flues and other vents, and because of poor wiring, fire starts easily in American buildings, and spreads rapidly.

Defective methods of construction.

The annual loss from fire in the United States was estimated ten years ago as two hundred and fifty million dollars. To-day it is probably twice as great. Not all of this loss was due to the burning of buildings, for the estimates include forest fires and other fire losses. Although present property losses are unnecessarily heavy, our cities may never be visited again by such destructive fires as those which devasted parts of Boston and of Chicago in 1871.

Fire losses and great fires.

217. Fire Rules.—In our larger cities there are building restrictions. In the center of the city are areas, within the *fire limits* of which no frame building may be constructed. Every building must be provided with a fire escape and possibly with a staircase which, though within the building, is practically separated from the rest of the structure. Numerous rules have been made for the construction of chimneys, and for the venting of any fireplace or heater using gas, but in many cities these rules are not enforced. In any case, most buildings were built before these stricter rules were made.

Regulations for the prevention of fires.

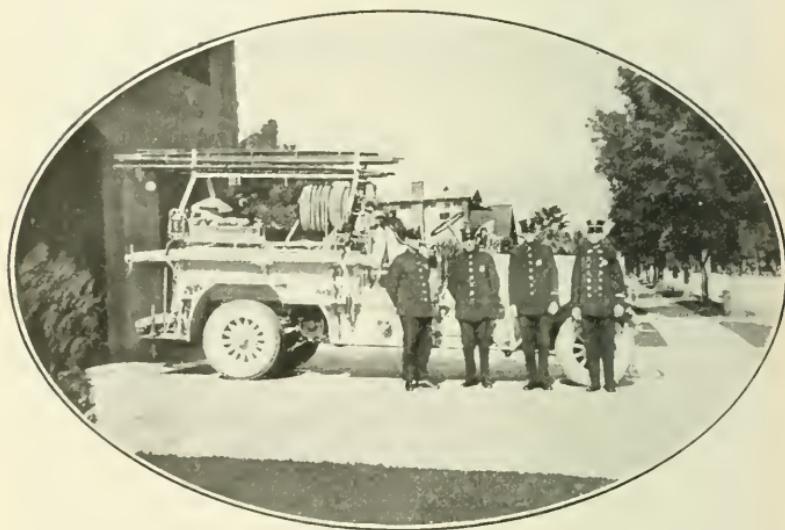
It is especially necessary that the *fire regulations* should be strict and be carefully enforced within theatres, churches, schools, and industrial buildings. In theatres asbestos curtains usually separate the stage from the audience and therefore delay the spread of fire. The inexcusable habit of keeping doors locked is frequently responsible for great loss of life. Fire drills in schools

Problem of rules and their enforcement.

have undoubtedly saved thousands of lives because few school buildings are fireproof, and fires do occur in them occasionally.

Old-fashioned methods of fighting fire.

218. Fire Fighting.—In country districts no fire departments exist, but every city spends a large sum of money on its fire apparatus and department. Three fourths of a century ago fires were fought by voluntary companies, the members of which passed buckets from



A MODERN FIRE ENGINE

hand to hand or pumped water from the nearest hydrants, vying with each other to see which could reach the fire first and throw a stream farthest and highest.

Modern fire-fighting apparatus.

Our modern fire departments include up-to-date chemical engines, which are high-powered automobiles, fully equipped. There are hose carts, which carry long lines of hose, and ladder trucks, which provide ladders for reaching upper stories. In the larger cities extension towers are used which can be raised to a considerable height. From these a stream of water can be thrown directly into the upper windows of a burning building.

Our fire departments are organized in one or two platoon systems. If all firemen are obliged to live at the fire house, and be ready for call at any time, the one platoon system is in use. If, however, half of them are on duty long hours one week and short hours the next, it is then possible for the men to live at their homes. This is the greatest advantage of the two platoon system.

One and
two platoon
systems.

HEALTH

219. The Value of Human Life.—How much is a human life worth? It would be difficult to determine the value to society of such a life as that of George Washington. Unfortunately we can estimate the cost to society of the lives of some criminals; but most of us are neither great leaders nor serious offenders. Although we can not be certain of even the economic value of a human life, we do know that if a man is a good citizen, industrious and saving, he is worth more to society than the man who is always breaking laws, who is idle and yet at the same time wasteful. The person who learns to use the hours wisely, who gives both time and thought to work that he wants to do and that society needs, is likely to be a blessing to all with whom he is associated. The value of human life therefore depends upon how it is lived, but it depends also upon how long it is lived.

Some means
of measur-
ing human
values.

A century or two ago the average human life was not more than thirty years; to-day it is at least forty. A century or two ago probably half of the children died before they were five; nowadays not more than one in five die during the first year, and in some communities figures seem to show that nine out of ten probably survive the first year. The decrease in infant mortality is one of the greatest gains made by modern civilization.

Increased
longevity;
decreased
mortality.

If the span of life has been increased from thirty to forty-five years, or if the average life for those that sur-

Possible value of increased length of life.

vive the fifth year has increased from forty-five to sixty years, we can easily see how much more useful the modern man may be than was his great-grandfather. If a man who lived to be forty-five spent ten years on an education, he had thirty years for work, but he was not well prepared to do that work. But, if a man lives to be sixty and spends fifteen years in preparation, he can do more every year than could the man who left school at fifteen—and he has forty possible years in which to work. It is hardly too much to say that, other things being equal, the second man may do twice as much as the first. To express the same idea in another way, he can do fifty per cent more work and have more time to enjoy life and the products of his labor.

Reasons for low death rate.

220. Control of Disease.—The death rate of the average American city to-day is only about a third as high as was that of the English manufacturing town of the last century. This change is due chiefly to improved sanitation, including better plumbing and more scientific methods. It is due largely, however, to our greater knowledge of disease, its causes, its prevention, and its cure. Most public health activities are negative and preventive; rules are usually enforced by state and local boards of health.

Loss of life from epidemics in the past.

In past ages, *epidemics* were very common. Among these smallpox was probably the worst scourge. When people were gathered in cities, the losses were heavier than where they were more widely separated and lived more in the open. Most of the epidemics of the past have been conquered and now we seldom have widespread outbreaks.

Uses of quarantine against the spread of contagious diseases.

One of the means used to prevent the spread of infectious diseases is the use of *quarantine*. For example, at a seaport persons suffering from an infectious disease are excluded from entering the United States. Local

quarantines are often enforced and people are prevented from entering or leaving an area in which an infectious disease exists. Quarantines are established also in separate homes, the members of which are not allowed to visit other people.

A second way in which epidemics are prevented, or made less harmful, is by keeping streets, homes, and yards cleaner, because many infectious or contagious diseases are due to filth. A third reason why epidemics are less common is the teaching or use of preventive measures in schools. Medical attention is given to those who are likely to spread disease and students are told how to fight disease after it starts. A fourth method of prevention is the improvement in our supplies of drinking water. Numerous diseases, notably typhoid fever, are caused by the impurities found in a water supply. By furnishing water from watersheds which have been kept clean (§163), the health of a city can be improved greatly.

The work of health protection should not be limited to the control of contagious diseases. It should include measures for the improvement of the health of the individual. Most progressive school systems are doing a necessary preventive work by examining all school children. Frequently the relief of some apparently minor defect, *e. g.* in the teeth or in nasal passages, has changed a sickly or apparently dull pupil into a vigorous, intelligent student. This work of school clinics may become one of the first duties of a school system, since good health is the first requisite of a brain in good working order. Our schools should work for "a sound mind in a sound body."¹

221. Disposal of Waste.—Clean streets are necessary for the health of city dwellers, since every wind carries

Other preventative or precautionary measures against contagion.

Efficiency work of school clinics.

¹ The new psychology gives us a new scientific basis for the old motto. It teaches that "mind" may be almost as much a product of the trunk as of the brain.

Removal of
dust, rub-
bish, and
garbage.

multitudes of germs from the dust or filth of pavements.¹ The collection and disposal of rubbish and garbage is one of the most perplexing problems of American cities. Although this necessary sanitary work is usually done by city agents, it is frequently performed in an unsanitary manner. Some cities have established incinerators, which dispose of all combustible wastes. This method is somewhat more expensive than others. A few cities are following the European plan of separating the liquids in refuse and garbage and using the residue for fertilizer; but this system can be used advantageously only on a large scale.

The
problem
of sewage
disposal.

The most important of the city's sanitary problems from the engineering point of view and from the viewpoint of health is the *disposal of sewage*. Practically every large city has adopted a network of sewers, connected with an outfall sewer which conveys the sewage to some place at a distance. Frequently sewage is treated with chemicals in septic tanks, possibly on a farm owned by the city. If a city has a poor sewage system or poor plumbing in its houses, its death rate is unnecessarily high.

Milk regu-
lations and
inspeetion.

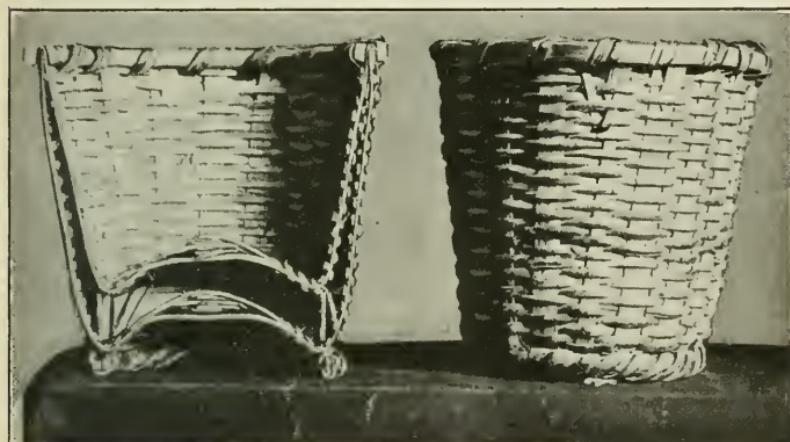
222. Pure Milk and Meats.—Good health is impossible without pure milk as well as pure water. Particularly in city tenements is there close connection between infant mortality and the character of the city's milk supply. Almost all modern cities have definite standards for the quality of milk which may be sold within their limits. At regular intervals health officers inspect all dairies in order to see that the cows are healthy and that their quarters

¹ Marvelous improvements were wrought in New York, 1894-1898, by one man, Colonel Waring, with his "white angels." Waring's work in Havana and Colonel Gorgas' sanitary achievements in the Canal Zone have been even more remarkable. In cleaning the streets of American cities care is taken to have the work done chiefly by mechanical sweepers at night and, if possible, after the pavements have been watered to avoid the raising of dust.

are kept clean. Local ordinances as well as food laws prohibit the use of preservatives in milk.¹

Local food inspectors examine meat as well as milk, seeking to prevent the sale of spoiled meats, or meat that has been kept by the use of preservatives. Local, state, and national inspectors usually supervise carefully the slaughter and packing houses.² A similar work is per-

Inspection
of meats
and fruit.



A FALSE MEASURE

formed by fruit inspectors, who condemn perishable foods that have been kept too long. State or local inspectors examine weights to see that scales give honest weight and inspect measures to be certain that boxes have no false bottoms and are of the size advertised.

223. Pure Food Laws.—A few years ago the American people discovered that many of the foods they were

¹ The milk campaigns carried on in Rochester, New York, and many other cities have resulted in a decreased infant death rate. In some communities model milk depots have been established, which are clean and which seek to distribute milk at a low cost. In a few cities in the tenement districts during hot weather ice has been sold at cost to preserve the children's supply of food.

² National inspectors may condemn meats which are unsatisfactory; the approved product is marked "United States inspected and passed." In the canning and preserving rooms of packing houses and food factories, especial care is taken to maintain cleanliness and to encourage the use of up-to-date methods.

Need of
pure food
laws.

eating were not properly prepared or were not made up of the ingredients which they had supposed. In some cases absolutely injurious drugs were used to keep the food from spoiling. In fact, some of these preservatives were poisons. In the year 1906 the national government passed a pure food law, and many of the states immediately followed its example.

General
character of
pure food
laws.

Most of these laws compel the manufacturers of foods and drugs to mention any injurious or poisonous substances contained in their product. They are not, however, required to name the materials of which their foods are made. Even under the present law, it is not possible, therefore, for a buyer to know just what he is getting, although he can be reasonably certain that he is not buying something entirely different from what he imagines. Articles containing poisons can not be thrust upon him without his knowledge.

Specific
provisions
of pure
food laws.

Coal tar dyes, a form of coloring matter which is misleading rather than harmful, can now be used at drug stores and in foods only when the words "artificial coloring" are placed in a conspicuous position. Certain preservatives are prohibited altogether; others, such as benzoic acid, must not be used except in very minute quantities. Oleomargarine may no longer be sold as butter and is taxed at the rate of ten cents a pound. Patent medicine labels must declare the amount of certain ingredients.

HOUSING

Present
shortage of
dwellings.

224. The Housing Problem—General.—In these days the housing problem is one of quantity as well as of quality. Because of the high cost of building, and because practically no dwellings were erected during the World War, there is probably a shortage of one million houses in the United States at the present time.

From the point of view of health, the housing problem is one of too poor rather than too few houses. Many families are obliged to live in shacks. In crowded quarters it is impossible to take proper care of health. The real housing problem, however, is the *slum tenement*. Fortunately American cities cover a larger area than those of Europe, and we do not need to accommodate so many

Condition
of many
country
and city
dwellings.



Courtesy National Child Labor Committee

AN UNDESIRABLE TENEMENT

people in each room. As noted above, practically two thirds of the families of many European cities live in one- or two-room tenements.

225. Condition of Many American Tenements.— American conditions, however, are very bad. Many of the tenements are old, dirty, and unsanitary. Sometimes there is no running water for each apartment. Several families are obliged to depend upon a common tap. In old days these faucets were usually located in the hall at

Unsanitary
condition in
many of
the old
tenements.

the head of a staircase. As the water ran into wooden sinks, the hall and staircase were frequently in an inde-
scribable condition.

Condition
of many
tenement
rooms.

In most of these tenements the rooms are dark and poorly ventilated. A few of them face streets which are not much more attractive than that shown in the illustration on page 293. Most of them open on courts which are so narrow that, if windows are opposite each other, the inmates can shake hands across the intervening space. Sunlight rarely penetrates into such dungeons. Frequently the rooms are dark, for inside rooms have no windows and therefore no ventilation. In them children have been born, brought up, and have lived a large part of their lives.

The sweat
shop evil.

In rooms such as these *sweat shop workers* toil long hours for a mere pittance¹. Only a few years ago, for the making of a dozen children's dresses, a sweat shop worker and her children received only forty-five cents. They were therefore obliged to work twelve or fourteen hours a day, and every member of the family, even the little tots, was compelled to help.

Improve-
ment of old
tenements.

226. Tenement House Reform.—Within the last quarter century repeated efforts have been made to construct better tenements within our larger cities. Although old tenements have continued in use, their plumbing has been improved, and the worst dangers to health, due to filth and bad ventilation, have been removed in part. Very little, however, can be done to make a disreputable tenement into a decent place in which to live.

New build-
ing regula-
tions.

Under the new laws no builder may erect a tenement which covers most of the lot. Whereas formerly buildings left only about ten per cent of the ground space open, now they are obliged to leave twenty-five to thirty per cent for a yard. Courts must be of fair width. This

¹Note the illustration given on page 44.

change gives opportunity for a little sunlight and for more fresh air.

Fire escapes are required in practically all tenements, new and old. It would be difficult, however, to use many of the fire escapes because they are cluttered with broken furniture and other articles. In spite of the fact that the tenement housing laws are not enforced as strictly as they should be, dwellers in the tenement districts are much better off than were their parents a generation ago.

Superiority
of new
tenements
to old.



A MODEL TENEMENT, LOWER EAST SIDE, NEW YORK CITY

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Questions

1. Give some facts regarding lawlessness, comparing misdemeanors to-day with those of a few years ago and crimes a quarter of a century ago and to-day. What is the attitude of the American people toward law enforcement?

2. When is an offense criminal? Why are offenses not treated as crimes unless they have legal penalties? How large a police force do we have in this community? How are the members

*Primarily for teachers.

selected? Could the method of selection or the character of the service be improved? If so, how? What does each branch of the service do?

3. Why should we have open trials? Is it desirable (a) that the accused person should be allowed to call witnesses; (b) that he should not be obliged to testify against himself? What is a "sentence"? Does prison instruction or work teach the prisoner a trade? Should it do so? Why should a study be made of the physical, mental, and moral condition of the prisoner? What is the purpose of a system of punishment?

4. Is it fair to punish a criminal whose mental age is not more than ten years? At what mental age can a person be considered responsible? What kind of juvenile offenders ought never to be taken before any court? How should juvenile offenders be tried and punished? What is meant by probation? What should be done for the probationer?

5. Of what materials are most of our houses constructed? Name at least three causes of fires. To what extent might fire losses be reduced by better building rules and by enforcement of the rules that we have? Name some special ways in which loss of property or life may be reduced.

6. How were fires formerly fought? Describe the apparatus used by a modern fire department. What do you understand by the two platoon system? Give facts in regard to the fire department of this community.

7. Upon what two things does the value of a human life depend? If life can be lengthened ten years, why will its productiveness be increased greatly? By what means has the death rate been reduced? Name ways in which epidemics have been combated.

8. What is the problem of clean streets, clean yards, and of clean cellars? Discuss the problems of disposal of rubbish, garbage, and sewage. If possible, visit the local health office and at least one department connected with some problem of sanitation. Write a report on the results of your trip.

9. How can a city's milk supply be improved? What has been done to insure better meats? Give at least four provisions of the national pure food law or of the food law of this state.

10. Why has there been a shortage of dwelling places in recent years? How is a city's housing problem closely connected with the problem of transportation? Describe some of the unsanitary conditions found in the old-style tenement. Name at least four provisions of the new building laws in effect for tenements.

CHAPTER XVIII

SOCIAL ACTIVITIES OF GOVERNMENT

1. Education
 - a. Need of public schools in a democracy
 - b. Essentials of democratic education
 - c. Education for citizenship
 - d. Our present system of public schools
2. Charity
 - a. Causes of poverty
 - b. Dependent children
 - c. Paupers and other dependents
 - d. Hospitals and dispensaries
 - e. The duty of society to its needy classes
3. Parks and playgrounds
 - a. Playgrounds—general
 - b. A typical city playground
 - c. Public parks and boulevards
 - d. Types of parks and recreation
 - e. City planning
 - f. Civic centers

EDUCATION

Education
and igno-
rance under
absolute
government.

227. Need of Public Schools in a Democracy.—In a nation governed by an absolute monarch, or by nobles, it is not necessary that the common people should be educated to help govern, especially if the rulers do not wish to govern well or wisely. In such countries the people must remain ignorant in order that they may not understand how badly they are ruled. In time, of course, they will assert themselves. Then their ignorance may lead to revolution, to unnecessary bloodshed, and to still worse government. Such a country is not only in danger of a day of reckoning, but it loses all of the economic and

social progress which would have been brought to it by educated citizens.

In a democratic nation, education is not a luxury; it is a necessity, because it is a means of self-preservation. In a republic such as ours, education is necessary for the proper understanding of the principles and the practice of popular and representative government. It is essential to the choice of the best officials, to the enactment of the best laws, and to the enforcement of law and order. Without civic education we must submit to the rule of the few who know how to rule and can do so, or we must be content with mob rule. We must be satisfied with poor laws and with incompetent public servants.

Free public education is one of the chief means by which youthful citizens learn to be useful members of society. The education is not only for the benefit of the individual as an *individual*, but also for the advancement and development of the whole people. Free public education must be compulsory, at least for the grammar grades. If part-time work has been developed (§149), students of average intelligence can be required to remain in school, provided their help is not needed at home. If a state has good laws regarding mothers' pensions, workmen's compensation, and other forms of social insurance, every boy and girl should be able to spare a half day for school, at least until the age of sixteen.

228. Essentials of Democratic Education.—What kind of citizen should our schools produce? Should he have a general education or a technical education? Should our graduates be men of culture, men of affairs, or cultured men of affairs? Can a man really help to manage a republic if he lacks the elements of a general education? If he is trained in only one craft, how is he to know much about so complicated a society as this nation of ours? If he does not know what his rights are or of what his duties

Importance
of public
education
in a
democracy.

Social pur-
poses of
free com-
pulsory
public
education.

Why gen-
eral edu-
cation is
necessary
for citizen-
ship.

consist, because his knowledge is too limited and his comprehension is too narrow, how can he be a good citizen? Shall we not say that, the more general knowledge he has, the better he is able, other things being equal, to be a real man and do his part in the world?

Shall he then learn no useful occupation or trade? Most of us must earn a living, and we want it to be a decent living, which will support others than ourselves.

Why a practical education is valuable.



Copyright, Crown Bros.

AN ADVANCED CLASS IN MILLINERY

Should the school prepare its pupils for a craft or should it not? Certainly all must admit that a practical education is necessary; but what is most practical? From the dollars and cents point of view, a practical education is one that prepares a man or a woman to earn as good a living as possible with the least possible sacrifice. In the long run, general education may be more practical than technical education, because large *personal* incomes are usually earned by men who are well educated. Moreover,

modern society is learning that for a nation, as well as for a citizen, the best education is the cheapest. We are constantly demanding more school training as preparation for life and citizenship. For those who are in attendance at school, but especially for those who are not, the *public library* is one of the greatest aids to self-education. Books of a serious character are especially valuable, and good novels help us to understand life. The formation of public opinion is aided greatly by magazines and newspapers.

229. Education for Citizenship.—Many progressive students of education have laid stress upon the fact that education should prepare us for citizenship. They have urged that courses be given in the nature of our *government* and in the *activities* carried on by those governments. Some of them have gone much farther and have argued for a study of the *citizen* in his relation to those governments and activities. A few have gone still farther, because they have made a study of the citizen in his relation to other members of *society*, even if those other members do not hold office or have political duties.¹

In many schools this work in *civics* or citizenship is given in the last half of the course, preferably in the senior year in connection with American history. In many high schools, particularly in the East, courses in community civics have been given in the junior high or intermediate school. In Indianapolis, Philadelphia, Southern California cities, and a number of others, well organized courses in citizenship for the grades have laid a foundation for better work in the high schools. The requirements of an excellent course include, at the least, three elements: (1) some systematic training in citizen-

Contents of
different
citizenship
courses.

Civics
courses for
different
grades of
pupils.

¹ A great deal of citizenship work can be done in history and in courses other than those in the social sciences. Patriotic orations are often studied in English classes. Many sciences help us to know ourselves. Almost every subject explains something of man's relation to his fellows or his environment.

ship in the grades; (2) an organized course in the junior high school which shall deal with the citizen in his civic relations and give some idea of the way in which society is organized for government, business, and other purposes; and (3) an advanced course in civics or civic problems, the character of the course depending upon the work that has been done by the students in earlier years.

High school
courses in
citizenship
and civics.

As many schools do not give good citizenship courses in the grammar grades, it is highly desirable that there should be at least one first-class course in citizenship before the student has passed the ninth year of school. Such a course can not be given very early, because the students are not sufficiently mature or intelligent to obtain the most from it. Since, however, a large majority of students drop out before the seventh year, and another half before the end of the ninth year, it is desirable that the course should be given not later than the ninth year. For students who are almost ready to graduate from high school a still more advanced course is highly desirable. Because of their greater maturity and mental development, they can understand better *the underlying principles of government and civic problems*, which would not be appreciated in earlier years.

Organiza-
tion of
schools.

230. Our Present System of Public Schools.—In a single section it is difficult to describe our present system of public schools. In general, it might be said that most cities provide primary and grammar schools, usually covering a course of eight years in addition to a kindergarten. In most states public high schools are provided as a part of the general plan. These high schools ordinarily give a four years' course. Another arrangement has been adopted to some extent in recent years. It combines the first six grades for the lower division and divides the upper six grades into a junior high school, including the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades,

and the senior high, including the tenth, eleventh and twelfth.

The smaller country schools are not well organized or graded, because their students are few in number and many of their teachers are not well paid. In the city schools, on the contrary, a system of grading has been worked out carefully. Almost every city school is large

The problem of grading pupils.

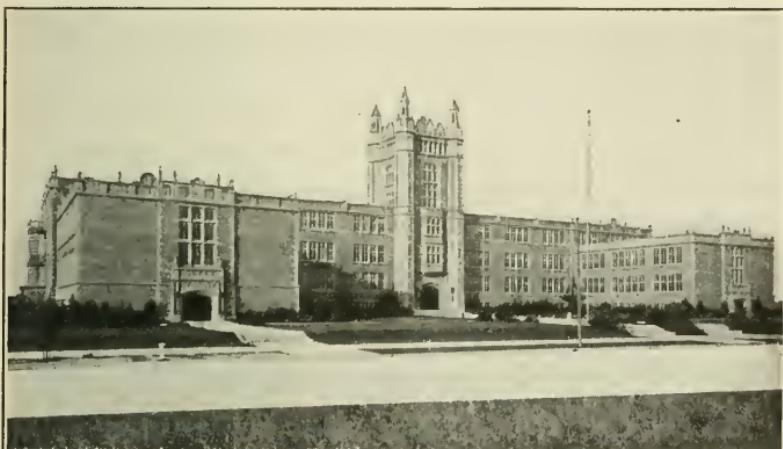


Photo by George F. Clifton

LOS ANGELES HIGH SCHOOL, LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

enough to contain each grade. The larger schools usually have two or three classrooms of the same grade. In some cities there are ungraded schools for those who show marked ability, those who are behind their fellows in some subject, or those who are deficient in mental capacity.

In the country, most high schools are general schools, and give little technical education. If there is but one high school in a city, it usually offers a large number of courses, some literary, some scientific, some technical. If a city is large enough to have several high schools, there is likely to be one that is general, a second that is commercial, a third that is industrial and technical, and a fourth that may be scientific. Occasionally a community

High schools in small and large communities.

offers free courses in junior college work, that is, for the first two years of college. In a few cities there are city colleges, which give regular college courses and degrees.

Content of
courses and
methods be-
low the high
school.

By general consent the courses for the first six grades are much alike, and are required by all students. The older subjects, particularly the three "R's," are the basis of the work during these earlier years. In addition, there are a number of newer subjects, some of which make use of the student's ability to draw and to work on models of paper, wood, or clay. Especial attention is paid to learning by doing, but the classes are usually too large for much individual instruction. In many advanced grammar grades and in all junior high schools, a beginning is made of departmental instruction (§57). There are frequently separate teachers for English, history, mathematics, and other branches. Moreover, not all of the subjects are required, and students may be allowed to elect a modern language, a commercial branch, or special work in art, music, or mechanics. As already described (§116), the high school assumes that each student will select courses fitting his abilities and preferences.

CHARITY

Need of
public
charity.

231. Causes of Poverty.—There are in every community certain persons who are unable or unwilling to provide for themselves. Most of them have relatives who give them a home and the necessities of life. The rest are a burden upon society and must be supported by private charity or at public expense.

Personal
causes of
poverty.

The causes of poverty are numerous. Some are as old as human nature. Shiftlessness, intemperance, vice, and lack of economy keep many from having their share of the necessities as well as the comforts of life. Only force would compel some people to earn a decent living, so ingrained is their laziness. Others believe that the world

owes them a living, reversing the dictum of the good citizen that he owes the world a life. Still others are by nature, lack of training, or temperament unable to do any work properly; they are the incompetents, the ne'er-do-wells, part of whose burdens must be assumed by society.

Our modern industrial system leads to a great deal of poverty and even of pauperism. No longer is there regular work or free land for every family. Some occupations are overcrowded, perhaps in the community within which a laborer lives. Many industries give employment only at intervals. Modern industry is possible because of the development of huge and dangerous machines; but labor has paid a heavy toll in maimed limbs and in diseased or distorted bodies (§182). The injury or death of the chief wage earner of a family has been a prolific cause of poverty.

Economic causes of poverty.

232. Dependent Children.—There is no class of people whose needs are greater than those of children who have no home. In order to protect the public, it is necessary to care for children of this type. Otherwise, they grow up in ignorance, and the bad habits they learn in childhood make it easy for them to become criminals. Since many of these children are mentally defective, it is especially necessary that they should be placed in children's homes and protected until they are capable of making their own way in the world. Although an institution for children is not so good as a separate home would be, it is infinitely better than a city street, as an abode and a place of education.

The problem of the dependent child.

It is probably wise to have the children from an ordinary institution attend a public school rather than to maintain a separate school for them within the walls of the institution. Moreover, there should be *special schools for different types of defective children*. Those who are of low mentality should be separated from the others and

The education of the dependent child.

trained in an entirely different way. It stands to reason that there should be special schools for those who are blind and for those who are deaf. These schools should give the children a fairly good general education, and so train them that they will be able to earn a living. In many special schools the equipment furnished, the methods used, and the instruction given are of a high character.

Classes of poor people.

233. Paupers and Other Dependents.—There are two classes of the poor: (1) those who are partially destitute, and are therefore dependent in some degree on public or private charity, and (2) paupers whose very existence depends on help received from the public.

Forms of charity outside of institutions.

The aid given to a person who is simply poor is different than that which is meted out to one who is a pauper. The ordinary poor can receive some *outdoor relief*, provided they are not pauperized by it. This help may be food, or it may be in the form of coal, clothing, or other necessities. *Medical aid* may possibly be provided in the homes. Even with those who are destitute, it is probably wiser not to give much outdoor relief unless every case is studied carefully and the officials in charge of the work are conscientious and careful.

Public institutions for paupers.

Almost every community maintains some institution for paupers, usually a poorhouse or a county farm. Those capable of working should be compelled to contribute something toward their own support. Often poor farms are largely self-supporting. In some of these institutions the practical management is seriously defective and unpardonably brutal. This is especially the case where the aged, the young, the blind, the insane, the feeble-minded, and the sick are herded together.

Care of the sick and the sick poor in public hospitals.

234. Hospitals and Dispensaries.—Few persons are so deserving of sympathy and help as are the sick poor. Needing skilled care, delicate food, expensive medicines, or still more costly surgical attention, they are unable

to afford the help that will save them from death or permanent invalidism. Public hospitals are maintained in most cities and by many counties and towns. At these institutions patients are treated free or at a small cost. Nevertheless, the work done is often of an especially high



OPEN AIR CORRIDOR IN A HOSPITAL

character, because very able physicians give a considerable part of their time without charge. There are also resident physicians and nurses, who are paid by the public to look after the inmates.

Visiting physicians may spend most of their time in attendance on the needy sick in their own homes. Those whose ailments are not serious can often obtain free treatment at the dispensaries, which are to be found in most large cities. Almost all medical colleges maintain out-clinics, in which patients receive the best of treatment at a very low cost.

Work of
dispensaries.

235. The Duty of Society to Its Needy Classes.—A society that is public-spirited is anxious not only to relieve poverty and needs of other kinds, but to reduce them.

The problem of public relief or of united voluntary organization

Whether this work shall be done by the public directly through its government or by voluntary charitable organizations depends upon many things. If a person is helpless on account of poverty, sickness, or other cause, the public should take care of him, unless some one of his family can do so. If the person is only partly helpless, or helpless only part of the time, voluntary charity organizations may be able to look after him. These charitable organizations should form a united welfare group. Otherwise, an undeserving person might secure help which he did not need or obtain assistance from several different charitable organizations. Many cities have established central bureaus for the registration of persons who need any form of relief. Many have "community chests," that is, common funds out of which all welfare expenses are paid through different organizations.¹

Remedy rather than relief desirable.

For the immediate relief of many victims of industrial distress, we must depend chiefly on charity until we have shown, by education of individuals and the public, that poverty may be prevented to some extent. Of course, until the causes of poverty are removed, there can be no solution of the problem. It is difficult to "make over" human nature; but it is possible to find *real remedies* for industrial troubles, through workingmen's compensation (§182), plans to reduce unemployment (§180), the minimum wage (§172), and mothers' pensions.²

PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS

236. Playgrounds—General.—"In 1890 there were in the United States one public playground, one public

¹ The special advantage of the "community chest" is that it has only one "drive" for money each year. Each organization in the federation that shares in the benefits of this united work must have a budget (§ 2:3) of expenses, and this budget must be approved by a central finance committee.

² Many states now pay to needy widows a monthly sum according to the number of dependent children, in order that the children may be brought up in real homes.

swimming bath, no movies, and yet the schoolhouses were closed and the parks inhospitable. Commercialized amusements multiplied rapidly at the end of the nineteenth century; public play began to be organized. Still the twentieth century inherited the superstition that play is the occupation of childhood."¹

How different is the situation to-day! We have already spoken of the play interests and activities of the boys and girls on the school ground before school and at recess (§§ 53-55). We have stressed the social value of this play in the development of healthy bodies (§103), and in the creation of a spirit of fairness and in the organization of teamwork or play it does not matter which word we use. There may be more school playgrounds than any other kind, but there are many others. In some cities they are open to the boys and girls of the neighborhood during practically all daylight hours; possibly they can be used evenings if properly lighted and supervised.

In the larger cities, which have few vacant lots and in which several hundred people live on every acre of land, the streets are almost always crowded and some special places for play are desirable. A few cities have set aside small parks in congested districts, sometimes at very great cost. For example, Seward Park in the lower East Side of New York cost three million dollars, a sum greater than the entire park systems of many American communities. Unfortunately, most of our larger cities did not plan in advance to have breathing spaces in their more thickly settled residence districts.

In some cities it has been necessary to construct playgrounds on the roofs of the buildings, especially schoolhouses, and on public wharves. Again New York City is the best example of a community that is seeking to provide places of recreation for the multitudes who can not

The situation a third of a century ago.

School playgrounds during school hours and at other times.

Play parks for congested metropolitan districts.

Playgrounds in unusual places.

¹ Zueblin, *American Municipal Progress*, 296.

afford to go either to the seashore or to the country. Music is provided in some of these playgrounds, and some are well equipped with apparatus for exercise and games.

Where playgrounds should be located.

237. A Typical City Playground.—A good playground should be well located. It should be in a residence district where there are plenty of children. The distance from the home of the child must not be so great that he is too tired for proper exercise after he arrives. Wherever



A PUBLIC PLAYGROUND

possible a playground should be level. Use is often made of school grounds as playgrounds, because the school-houses are always near the homes of the children.

Size and apparatus. A playground should be large enough to provide space for the children of that locality who wish to use it at any time. There ought to be room for the little children to play by themselves. Different kinds of apparatus should be provided in order to meet the needs of all ages.

Bathing facilities.

A large first-class playground should have a plunge. Unfortunately, it is not possible to provide all playgrounds with bathing facilities, or even with wading pools for the little folk. If there is a plunge, dressing

rooms must be provided. A nominal fee is usually charged for the use of the water and the dressing rooms, but in some cities those who bring their own bathing suits are not asked to make any payment whatever.

Most playgrounds should have room for games such as croquet, tennis, handball, basket ball, and possibly baseball. It is impossible to provide playgrounds of this type in congested districts because land is valuable and the area required is large.

Arrange-
ments for
games.

238. Public Parks and Boulevards.—All cities have parks. Some are large and some small; some are centrally located, and some are situated in the suburbs. As a rule the small parks are down town, because the park idea is new and land in the center of every city is expensive. Most commons of the New England towns and plazas of the old Spanish pueblos still exist as parks and are ordinarily near the heart of a city's activities. Most of them, however, are comparatively small and therefore of relatively little value as parks. Large parks are almost necessarily located in the outskirts of a city. Fairmount Park in Philadelphia and Central Park in New York are notable exceptions, land having been set aside for park purposes by those communities many years ago.

Character
of centrally
located
parks.

Some of our largest cities have made a policy of locating their larger parks in different parts of the city. Chicago and Boston furnish good examples of that plan. In order that these parks may be used by those on horseback, they are provided with drives, bridle paths, and foot paths. As automobiles are far more common than horses, the drives now predominate. Many parks are connected by systems of boulevards, some of which are lined with trees and made beautiful with flowers and shrubbery in the center. In a few cities, it is possible to make the entire circuit of the parks and boulevards without leaving attractive drives.

Park and
boulevard
systems.

Seaside parks.

239. Types of Parks and Recreation.—If land has been acquired before houses have been built in neighboring districts, many of these outlying parks are large and attractive because of their natural beauty. Most of our best municipal parks are situated near the outskirts of the city. If the city is near the seashore, they may occupy some picturesque stretch of coast. Such a park gives opportunity for bathing and possibly for boating. By the construction of a short wharf, municipal bands may play to immense audiences that gather on the beach.

Parks on rivers or lakes or in natural valleys.

Many cities are located on rivers. They are therefore able to utilize a ravine, valley, or other interesting spot which has little commercial value for business or residence. Most of these parks have beautiful streams, and some of them have good sized lakes. On level spots it is possible to provide courts for such games as have been named, for example, tennis and baseball. If parks are sufficiently large, municipal golf links are frequently installed, as is the case in at least sixty cities. Opportunities for bathers are ordinarily provided, possibly on the river front, or in some point on the lake, or possibly in an artificial plunge. If cleanliness is next to godliness, the spiritual standards of these communities should be high.

Recreational value of city parks

Many city parks are well provided with other types of amusements. Three of our largest American cities contain wonderful zoological gardens, and almost all others have at least a few cages of birds and wild animals. For the children of the poor these parks and playgrounds have replaced to some extent the old playgrounds of dirty streets and dark alleys. They give room for sunshine, spontaneous play, and healthful sports. Together with the public swimming pools and bathhouses, their influence for health and cleanliness remakes many lives. Band concerts and other forms of amusement on Sundays and evenings attract large numbers of adults, for whom

innocent amusement is as necessary as it is for children. To the multitudes whose days are spent in grinding toil, whose homes offer little or no attraction, whose vacations come as periods of enforced idleness when times are hard, the ever increasing number of parks and playgrounds are an inestimable blessing.

240. City Planning.—Almost all European cities have crooked and narrow streets, at least in the older parts, as some of our American cities had in their early days. Most of our later American cities have been built on what might be called the checker board plan of streets, although the blocks are oblong instead of square. The main streets usually run in one direction and the cross or residence streets in another.¹

In a few cities, notably Washington and Indianapolis, important avenues or boulevards cut across this system of rectangular squares, making it possible to go to a corner of the city more directly than could be done with a system of rectangular blocks alone. Many cities have left the location of streets largely to real estate dealers. In these communities there may be two or possibly a half dozen parallel streets in the center of the city, but, outside these main thoroughfares, it is impossible to go easily from one part to another.

Hills or valleys make a different arrangement of streets necessary. To some extent streets should follow the formation of the ground, but should avoid the higher knolls and the deeper depressions. If land is sufficiently valuable the valleys can be filled and the knolls can be razed. In many communities the highest-priced property is located in these hilly districts, once thought suitable only for pastures or cemeteries. The most beautiful

General
street plan
of Ameri-
can cities.

Diagonal
boulevards
contrasted
with poorly
planned
systems.

Winding
drives in
hilly
localities.

¹ Some cities designate the streets running in one direction by the name street and those running at right angles as avenues. Some of them go so far as to number the streets from the center and make use of the letters of the alphabet for at least one direction.



A BEAUTIFUL Civic BRIDGE

Photo by Harold A. Parker



CIVIC CENTER, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA
(Showing spaces at front and left for new civic buildings)

Photo by R. J. Waters & Co.

section of the most beautiful city in America is of this type.

As all cities are growing, they should plan for the future extension of streets and boulevards as well as parks. We ought to avoid the mistakes made by our fathers and grandfathers. There certainly is every reason why we should make our cities as beautiful as possible. Many experts believe that every city should purchase some land in outlying districts. In time the income from this property might greatly reduce the taxes necessary for the support of the city's activities.

Need of
planning
for a future

241. Civic Centers.—We hear a great deal about civic centers. A large number of beautiful plans have been constructed, but at present most civic centers are on paper. Certainly it is desirable that the public buildings of any community should not be too widely scattered. If a courthouse is a mile from the city hall of that community, and the city hall another mile from the federal building, and the federal building a long distance from the hall of records or the public library, those who have business at more than one of these buildings are compelled to go an unreasonable distance and, therefore, to waste an immense amount of time.

Need and
slow growth
of civic
centers.

The plea of economy in time is not necessarily, however, the chief advantage of a center, because every community needs one. There should be some one place about which the more distinctively public or civic activities should be concentrated. By its dignity and by the beauty of the buildings that surround the central court or park, this place should represent the dignity and beauty of the community itself. Such a center is a matter of pride to the city within which it is located and it helps to develop the civic spirit¹ that a true community should have.

Importance
and value
of civic
centers.

¹ See §§ 298-300.

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Questions

1. Why may public education be unnecessary in an autoocracy? State ways in which public education is a means of self-preservation in a democracy. Show what education does for us as individuals, and why it should be compulsory for all members of any society.

* Primarily for teachers.

2. What general education should every citizen have? To what extent should training be given that will be directly valuable in the earning of a living? How much is it possible to teach him regarding how groups are organized, what rights and what duties each member of a group has, and how the member or the group can do its work better? What should be the content of a good citizenship or civics course? What kind of citizenship work can be given below the high school?

3. What different types of schools are included within the school system of this community and state? How are the country schools of this vicinity organized? If you are living in a city, explain the school system, giving number of members of the Board of Education, names of at least two, term of office, and manner in which they are chosen. Give the name and the method of appointment of the superintendent.

4. What are the qualifications of teachers for the high schools in this city or state? Summarize the courses offered in the first six years of the school system, in the seventh and eighth grades, and in the four years or last three years of the high school.

5. Name personal causes of poverty. Mention several ways in which our modern industrial system leads to poverty.

6. Why must society do something for the child that has no home of his own (*a*) for its own protection and (*b*) for the sake of the child? What should it do for the child who is mentally defective as well as homeless? If he is physically defective, how can society help him to become a better and more useful citizen?

7. How is a pauper different from a partially destitute person? What is meant by outdoor aid? What can be done for the sick poor? In a public hospital what classes of patients should be treated free? Summarize ways in which poverty and other forms of need may be relieved. What causes of poverty may be removed, and how may the remedy be applied in each case?

8. What was the play situation in the United States a third of a century ago? Why should there be numerous public playgrounds? Are the school grounds of this city properly utilized for play after school hours? Are there other grounds suitable for games? If not, what do the boys and girls do after school?

9. What are the names of our city parks, and where is each located? Give some idea of the play or amusement opportunities of those which are near the school. How should a park be improved, and what should be its value to the general public? What

is a zoological garden? What is a park system? Why is it necessary to consider boulevards in the making of park systems?

10. What do you understand by a civic center? Name three or four buildings that should be included in a civic center. Aside from economy of time, effort, and money, what are some of the advantages of a first-class civic center? Contrast civic centers with the social centers described in § 299.

CHAPTER XIX

FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF GOVERNMENT

Financial obligations of the citizen

1. Government expenditures and property rights
 - a. Why the national government needs money
 - b. War expenditures of the national government
 - c. Purposes for which local governments spend money
 - d. The basis of public taxation
2. Public revenue
 - a. General source of national revenue
 - b. National income, business, and other taxes
 - c. National and state corporation taxes
 - d. Inheritance taxes
 - e. General property tax
 - f. Issuance of bonds
3. Financial methods and problems
 - a. The budget
 - b. The financial problem

242. Financial Obligations of the Citizen.—All governments need money. It is a notorious fact that democracies are extravagant, largely because the persons who decide the tax rate pay little themselves and do not have a proper sense of responsibility in keeping taxes low. Undoubtedly great injustice has been done by some of our taxes, which have compelled poor people to pay relatively large sums, although some rich people have escaped with comparatively small amounts.

What constitutes a *just tax* we shall consider briefly, after we have made some study of government expenditures and of the attitude of the public toward the property from which most of the revenues of government must

Responsibility for taxes.

Why wealth is a social trust.

come. If it is true that he who has much owes more than does he who has little, then the person who has property should pay more than another person in similar circumstances, but without property. That is, a person owes something solely because of the property that he possesses. He is under obligation to society to see that this property is used wisely and well (§155), and he owes to society a part of the income from this property (§154). In a true sense, *he is a steward* to whom wealth has been entrusted, temporarily. Only by the help of society did he or his ancestors acquire it; only by the consent of society does he hold it. This wise and proper use of his wealth is a social obligation.

GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES AND PROPERTY RIGHTS

Increase of
peace ex-
penditures.

243. Why the National Government needs Money.—Before the Civil War, the national government never spent as much as one hundred million dollars a year, even in time of war. A quarter century ago we had the first billion dollar Congress, when the national legislature appropriated that sum during its two year session. Since the World War, our annual appropriations have aggregated not several hundred millions, but several billions.

Although it is true that a dollar will not buy as much as it did a generation ago, nevertheless, our national government is unnecessarily wasteful and extravagant. The extraordinary increase of expenditure, however, has been due less to the actual need of spending large amounts of money than to the possibility of raising vast sums without great difficulty.

Extraor-
dinary ex-
penditures
of Uncle
Sam.

Ways in
which
money is
spent.

244. War Expenditures of the National Government.

—From the financial standpoint the national government is chiefly a war agency. By this we mean that most of its expenditures are due to past wars, to actual expenses connected with recent conflicts, or to work that is being

done apparently, if not actually, for the purpose of preventing future wars. In the year 1919–1920 ninety-three per cent of all the money spent by Uncle Sam through his national government was for these purposes.

Most of the public debts of the world are war debts, although before 1914 a fair percentage of the public debts of France, Germany, and some other European countries was due to improvements such as railroads and canals. In time of war the cost of feeding and equipping troops is one of the largest items; it is even in excess of the amount paid to the men for their services. Much food is wasted, and the high cost of transporting goods to camps or to the war front adds greatly to the expense. Naval vessels, war materials, including munitions and other necessities, factories needed for the making of war goods, and ships for their transportation are among the items that amount to vast sums.

Military
or naval
costs.

245. Purposes for Which Local Governments spend Money.—In time of peace the ordinary expenses of state and local governments have been heavier than those of the national government.¹ Schools can not be maintained without money for buildings, as well as for payment of the salaries of teachers. The salaries of public officials constitute an important item, since more than two million people are engaged in the administration of state and local affairs. The great expense of a police force, police courts, and buildings for the imprisonment of criminals shows that a high price must be paid for the preservation of order, especially in cities. Public charities of different types and kinds necessarily require considerable outlay, as do the preservation of health and the protection of buildings from fire.

Items of
regular
expense.

Public improvements call for large expenditures. These may be paid by the general public of the locality

¹ That is, before 1917.

The financing of general and local improvements.

The public and property.

How the public may take property it needs.

The right of the public to forced contributions or taxes.

for which the improvement is made, if the improvement is general, as in the case of a bridge, a trunk sewer, or a city park. Heavy and unusual expenditures of this kind are financed by the sale of bonds (§ 252). The cost of more distinctively local improvements are paid by special assessments, levied on the owners of the property that is especially benefited.

246. The Basis of Public Taxation.—Before we consider the character of different taxes in the United States, let us notice the relation of the public toward wealth in the form of property, since taxes must be levied chiefly on property or income.

Private property may be taken for public use in many ways. If a new street must be established or a railway constructed, one owner of the land that is necessary for its completion may not block the whole project by refusing to sell. His property is taken under the legal right of *eminent domain*.¹

A tax is a forced contribution by members of society to its support. In the case of taxation, private property or wealth in the form of income may be taken for public purposes without the direct consent of the owners of that wealth. The government insists that we shall pay the taxes needed by the public even if the work done by any government injures us as much as it benefits us personally. It is evident that the money for the expenses of any government must come from those who can pay rather than from those who can not. A just tax should therefore be levied according to the ability of a man to pay.

¹ If an owner is willing to sell but places an exorbitant price on his property, the courts appoint experts who decide what amount should be paid for the land, or what sum should be offered as damages for injury to other property which is not taken. When a street is to be improved, the government again steps in and makes a special assessment on all property which is supposed to be benefited by the street improvement.

PUBLIC REVENUE

247. General Source of National Revenue.—The national government has raised most of its revenue from taxes on business and incomes. During our early history we depended chiefly on *a tax upon imports, known as customs duties*. Since the Civil War we have depended practically as much upon *internal revenue*, chiefly excise

Different sources of national income.



NEW YORK CUSTOM HOUSE

taxes upon the manufacture of liquor and tobacco. In times of war other internal revenue taxes are used extensively. Since the adoption of the sixteenth amendment, in 1913, the *income tax* has been one of the government's chief sources of revenue. During recent years immense sums have been provided by *taxes upon corporations* and upon the excess profits or upon the special war profits of business.

Use of custom duties as protective tariffs.

About half of the commodities brought into the United States have not paid any duty whatever. Upon the other half the rates have usually been from twenty-five to fifty per cent of the value of the goods. As the rates are levied chiefly to protect American industries, we speak of the duty as forming a protective tariff (§166). The duties are not really paid by the importers but by the persons who buy the goods. If duties are collected, therefore, chiefly upon necessities, an unnecessarily heavy burden is placed upon those who can least afford to pay such a tax.

Problems of collecting duties.

The duties are collected at ports of entry on the borders of this country. There is some smuggling, especially on the part of the travelers who object to paying duty on articles purchased abroad. Importers sometimes seek to evade the customs laws by very greatly undervaluing goods. If detected, they are obliged to pay a heavy penalty.

Income taxes in recent years.

248. National Income, Business, and Other Taxes.—During the Civil War national taxes were levied upon incomes.¹ When the sixteenth amendment was passed, a small income tax of from one to seven per cent was first levied upon incomes over four thousand dollars.² Later, the rates were raised, and, after we entered the World War, they were extended very much more. At one time there was paid on net incomes of more than two thousand dollars³ a tax from six per cent to seventy-seven per cent.

Important excise taxes.

National excise taxes have been particularly heavy upon distilled liquors. Since the enactment of the eighteenth amendment, prohibiting the manufacture of alcoholic liquors throughout the United States, this tax has not been an important source of revenue. The tax upon tobacco has brought in a large revenue since its

¹At the close of the Civil War the rate was five per cent on incomes from six hundred dollars to five thousand dollars and ten per cent on incomes of more than five thousand dollars.

²The exemption for unmarried persons was only three thousand dollars.

³Single persons one thousand dollars.

first enactment at the time of the Civil War. These taxes upon luxuries are paid by the consumer.

249. National and State Corporation Taxes.—In recent years the *national government* has levied different kinds of corporation taxes. In a brief space it is impossible to describe them, because there have been numerous changes, and others are likely to be made. During recent years, however, considerable use has been made of the general corporation tax and of fairly high taxes upon profits, due to the World War or to other special causes. These taxes are usually shifted by the corporations to the consumer. They were partly responsible for the extraordinary increase in prices which occurred during the war and the period immediately following it.

Different kinds of corporation taxes

Many states are now seeking, through a tax on corporations, to reach stocks and bonds that formerly escaped taxation. Since much of our present wealth is created by industry through corporations, it has seemed fair that corporations should pay their full share. However, if private corporations are taxed severely by one state and not by others, they naturally will move to a state that does not tax them heavily. Public service corporations (§162), which receive numerous privileges from the public, are expected to pay a larger percentage of their revenues than ordinary corporations, which presumably do not have such advantages.

State taxes on public service and private corporations.

250. Inheritance Taxes.—Most of the *state governments* make use of inheritance taxes, but inheritance taxes are also levied at times by the *national government*. In theory the rates upon bequests or inheritances should be higher than those upon incomes, because the person who earns an income has a better right to it than the legatee has to a bequest. As the inheritance taxes are usually state taxes,¹ in contrast to the income tax, which

Nature of and objection to inheritance taxes.

¹At the present time there is a national inheritance tax.

is chiefly a national tax,¹ it is impossible for one state to raise its rates very high without driving to other states those of its citizens who object to leaving a large percentage of their wealth to the public. In these days it is easy for a rich man to have houses in different places; he can therefore claim legal residence in the state which takes least of his wealth year by year or at his death.



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CITIZENS PAYING TAXES

Why the
inheritance
rates are
progressive.

Few, if any, of the states require a tax to be paid upon small bequests to a wife, a husband, or a child. But if the bequest is large, or the legatee is not closely related to the deceased, a fair percentage of the amount must be paid into the state treasury. In other words, the tax is often progressive; *i. e.* the rate increases with the amount of the bequest or the lack of relationship between the deceased and the legatee.

¹ Some states have had and still have income taxes.

251. General Property Tax.—More than four fifths of the revenue of our local governments comes from the general property tax. Theoretically, this is a tax levied upon everything that possesses value. One part of the tax is assessed upon *real estate*, that is, lands and houses, the other upon *personal property*, including household furniture, farm implements, horses, and cattle.

It is difficult to assess real estate over a large area because it will be assessed higher in one district than in another. The greatest difficulty in using the general property tax, however, is the assessment of personal property. It is not easy to find and assess such intangible property as stocks and bonds. Under the general property tax many rich people do not pay their share of taxation.

252. Issuance of Bonds.—The cost of public improvements, including the construction of utilities such as water systems (§163), is not paid out of current revenues, but through the sale of bonds. These bonds run for long periods of time and draw comparatively low rates of interest. They can not be issued whenever a municipal council or commission desires. If the governing body of a city has approved the issuance of bonds, an election is held in which the people are asked to approve or disapprove the proposed indebtedness. Usually a three fifths or two thirds vote is required before bonds may be issued.

During the World War, immense quantities of Liberty Bonds were purchased by a patriotic public. The rates of interest were low, from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent, but each issue was larger than the preceding and was subscribed by a greater number of persons.

Importance
and nature
of the gen-
eral prop-
erty tax.

Difficulties
in assessing
the general
property
tax.

Issuance
and sale of
local bonds.

Results of
Liberty
Bond
“drives.”

FINANCIAL METHODS AND PROBLEMS

253. The Budget.—As stated above, popular governments have always been extravagant, largely because what

Extrava-gance of democracies.

is everybody's business is nobody's business. Since the public pays the bills, officials who may be in office for only two, three, or four years are not as economical as they might be. Sometimes they have had more money than they needed; again they have spent more than they had.

Failure to maintain a balance between the national income and expenditures.

Until 1921 Congress followed a plan of raising revenue through one committee, called the Committee on Ways and Means, and of spending it through a very large number of appropriation committees. Usually the appropriation committees did not try to learn how much revenue there would be, nor was it possible for the Committee on Ways and Means to know exactly how much money would be required for governmental expenditures. In consequence, the amount that was raised and the amount that was spent did not balance. There was usually a fair surplus or a large deficit. In 1921 Congress adopted a plan for a budget.

Control of the budget.

In recent years it has been suggested that a single group of persons find out how much money is needed, and arrange for raising just that amount. This same group has also been asked to watch the expenditure of those funds, in order that each department should have the amount that it needed, and that the money should be spent in the best possible way. The name *budget* is given to the account showing these items of governmental cost and of income.

General problems of finance.

254. The Financial Problem.—These problems which we have just considered are concerned with the amount of revenue or with a balance between the public income and the public expenditures. The first duty of any government is to spend wisely and economically what is needed, and no more. The second is to see that it has sufficient revenue, no more and no less. A third is to find the best sources from which that money can be raised. If the tax

system of a country assesses the poor man almost as heavily as it taxes a wealthy person, that system is poor. The public revenues of that country are probably very low, and can be increased with difficulty.

The financial problem of any government may be due to poor organization of the government itself, or to bad management of the political affairs of the city, county, state, or country. If any piece of work to be done by a government is distributed among a half dozen different administrative boards or departments, none of which has absolute control of any particular part of the work, waste and extravagance necessarily result. For example, if a city government allows each separate department to do its own buying, the materials will be poorer and more costly than they would under businesslike methods. To get the best results, cities employ expert buyers who know their business and who are well organized into a department of supplies.

With most governments, the greatest waste of all is usually a human one. Most American governments are careless in the selection of their employees. They do not get a day's work for a day's pay. In spite of the fact that many public officials and administrators are over-worked and really earn a much larger salary than they receive, the ordinary man or woman who draws money from a public treasury does less for his pay than does a person in a similar position with a private corporation.

The frequent changes in our administrations, national and local, and the frequent changes in the form of our city governments, make taxes heavy and public debts large. Our city fathers do not look far ahead; they plan chiefly for the present. More frequently they do to-day the things that should have been done yesterday, things that cost too much because they were not done when needed. When the rulers of any community plan five,

Example
of poor
organiza-
tion
or bad
manage-
ment.

Waste in
poor results
from public
employees.

Need to
plan for
the future.

ten, or fifteen years in advance, they are accused of being visionary and of incurring needless expense. Public officials ought to be encouraged to use foresight; the public needs to be educated to give this encouragement. We need more wise leadership, more expert advice, and more willingness to follow the advice of those who know.

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Questions

1. Why are democracies likely to be extravagant? If a person were entitled to every bit of wealth he could get together, how would a government get necessary revenues?

2. Show how our national expenditures have grown. Explain

*Primarily for teachers.

what "war expenses" we have. Should war expenditure be decreased? If so, how can it be done?

3. Name some of the items for which local governments expend money. What return does this community get for the money that is expended for schools or other governmental activities? Give examples of some of the public improvements of this community, and find out what one of them cost. Describe a special assessment.

4. Why and how may private property be taken for public use? What is meant by the right of eminent domain? Define the term "tax." Upon whom should a just tax be levied?

5. To what extent has the tax upon imports furnished the revenue for the national government? In what respect are customs duties satisfactory? In what respect are they objectionable? Explain the process of collecting duties and show why there is smuggling and undervaluing of goods.

6. What is an income tax? What part of an income is now exempt from taxation? What rate must be paid upon a small income of less than five thousand dollars? Find out what the rate is on more than one million dollars a year. Explain advantages and disadvantages of the income tax.

7. What do you understand by an excise tax? Name two that have been used most of the time for the last half century. Name and describe some national corporation taxes. What is meant by a state tax upon public service corporations? To what extent are either public service corporations or private corporations taxed in this state?

8. What is meant by a bequest? What is a legatee? Why should the tax rates upon bequests be higher than those upon incomes? Explain a progressive rate of tax. In what respects are the income rates usually progressive? State objections to high rates on any special state tax. Give the present rates of the national inheritance tax and of the inheritance tax of this state.

9. Describe the general property tax. Why is it difficult to assess some kinds of personal property? What groups pay more than their share under the general property tax? What is a bond? Under what circumstances may a city issue bonds? Tell about the Liberty Bonds issued during the World War. What are thrift stamps?

10. What is the Committee on Ways and Means? Would it be better to have one committee to spend money and a dozen to raise it than to have one to raise it and a dozen to spend it? Why should there be a balance between the amount that is raised and the amount

that is spent? What do you understand by a budget? Does our local government use a budget?

11. Name three financial duties of any government. Show how poor organization of government may make taxes high. Give three examples of bad management, showing how money is wasted by government. Explain why an unnecessary amount of money is spent for the employees of most city governments. How can a community plan wisely for the future? How can a civics class help a little in working out this problem?

CHAPTER XX

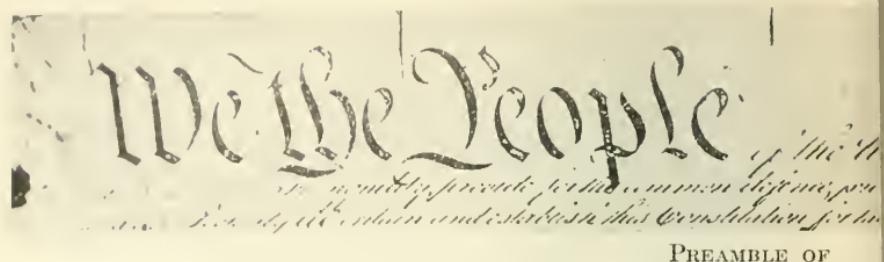
ORGANIZATION OF OUR GOVERNMENTS

1. The national government
 - a. The national Constitution
 - b. The organization of Congress
 - c. The powers of Congress
 - d. Special powers of the separate houses
 - e. The election of a President
 - f. Powers of the President
 - g. The cabinet
 - h. The national judiciary
2. State and county government
 - a. The state constitution
 - b. The state legislature
 - c. The work of the state legislature
 - d. The state executive
 - e. The state courts
 - f. County government
3. City government
 - a. The charter
 - b. Forms of municipal government
 - (1) Mayor and council type
 - (2) Commission government in cities
 - (3) The city manager form
 - c. Elective officials and elections
 - d. Appointive officials and boards

THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

255. The National Constitution.—Before the Revolutionary War broke out in 1775, the colonies had been separate and had been controlled separately by the British government. Before the war they had acted together in a number of congresses. During the war they were compelled to act in concert because, as Benjamin Franklin said, “We must all hang together, or we shall

Development of the American Union.



all hang separately." In 1776, as united colonies, they declared their independence of Great Britain, and in 1781 they organized a regular union under the Articles of Confederation. This union did not bind the states close together and was unsuccessful. In 1787, therefore, a convention met and drafted a new Constitution for the United States of America.

The constitutional convention met in Philadelphia. There were fifty-five members in all, but, of the forty-two who were present on the last day, only thirty-nine signed the Constitution. Although the convention was a small body, it included some very able men. Among the delegates were George Washington, James Madison, and Benjamin Franklin.¹

There was a decided difference of opinion among the delegates regarding a number of important matters. The large states wanted *representation* in both houses of Congress according to population; the small states insisted on equal representation. The problem was settled by allowing each to have two members in the upper house of Congress, the Senate, and representation according to population in the lower house.²

¹ Other delegates present were Alexander Hamilton, Roger Sherman, James Wilson, the two Morrises of Pennsylvania, and the two Pinckneys of South Carolina.

² Other compromises dealt with the counting of negroes for taxation and representation. In the second compromise it was agreed that five negroes should be counted as three whites. The third compromise provided that exports should not be taxed and that the slave trade should not continue after 1808.

Meeting of
the consti-
tutional
convention
(1787).

Compro-
mises in
the consti-
tutional
convention.

which the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity.

THE CONSTITUTION

Before the convention adjourned, it adopted a Constitution, the same one that we have to-day, without the amendments. It was necessary for nine states to ratify this document before it went into effect. In order that it might be changed, methods of amendment were arranged. Nineteen amendments have been adopted under the following plan: amendments are proposed by two thirds of each house of Congress and ratified by the legislatures in three fourths of the states.¹

256. The Organization of Congress.—Congress is made up of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The Senate is composed of two members from each state, elected by the voters for a term of six years.² The Senate is a continuous body, because only one third of the senators are elected at any one time.

The lower house of Congress, the House of Representatives, consists of four hundred and thirty-five members, popularly known as congressmen. They are elected by the voters, for terms of two years each, from districts into which the states are divided according to population. The congressional elections for both senators and representatives occur on the Tuesday after the first Monday of November in the even-numbered years.

¹ Amendments may also be proposed by a national convention called by two thirds of the states. Any amendment may also be ratified by state conventions in three fourths of the states if that plan is desired by Congress.

² Before the seventeenth amendment was adopted in 1913, the senators were elected by the state legislatures, not by the people.

Ratification
and amend-
ment of
the Con-
stitution.

Composition
of the
Senate.

Composi-
tion of the
House of
Represen-
tatives.

Long and
short ses-
sions of
Congress.

The term of office for a member of Congress begins on the fourth of March following the election,¹ but the regular sessions² of Congress do not begin until the first Monday in December. The first session of any new Congress is a long one, usually lasting into the following summer or autumn. The second session is always short, because the old Congress ceases to exist on the fourth of



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THE NATIONAL CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON

March; it therefore expires by limitation at the end of three months.

General
legislative
powers of
Congress.

257. **The Powers of Congress.**—Since Congress is the national legislature or lawmaking body of the United States, it has very extensive powers. It can not use, however, any power that it pleases, for the Constitution of the United States enumerates eighteen classes of powers

¹ A new Congress begins on the fourth of March every two years. Congresses have been numbered consecutively, beginning in 1789. The present Congress (1922) is the sixty-seventh.

² Special sessions of Congress are called by the President. Special sessions of the Senate are always held immediately after the inauguration of a new President to ratify appointments.

which it may exercise. One of these, however, is embodied in the elastic clause which gives to Congress power "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof."

One of the most necessary and important powers of a legislative body is that of *raising revenue*. Congress has the right to levy duties, excises, income taxes, and some other forms of taxes. It also has the right to borrow money on the credit of the United States. This is usually done in the form of loans. Congress controls all *commerce with foreign nations or among the several states*. The states are not allowed to regulate either international or interstate commerce.

Financial
and com-
mercial
powers.

Congress has very important *war powers*, which are denied to the states. It may declare war, has authority to raise an army, largely supervises the militia or national guard, and otherwise looks after the war interests of the country. Congress has *territorial powers* because it admits new states, controls the seat of the national government, the District of Columbia, and governs all territory that is controlled by the United States. Territory is usually annexed by treaty, but in two instances it has been acquired by the joint action of the two houses of Congress.¹ On these subjects and some others Congress has the right to make laws

Military
and terri-
torial
powers.

258. Special Powers of the Separate Houses.—Each house of Congress has special powers. The Senate helps the President make treaties; the consent of two thirds of the Senate is necessary in order that a treaty shall be ratified and therefore be valid. When the President

Special
powers of
the Senate.

¹ Among other powers which Congress possesses are those to make laws on naturalization and bankruptcy, to coin money, to establish post offices, and to issue patents and copyrights.

appoints an official, the appointment must be approved by the Senate.¹

Special powers of the House.

The House of Representatives has the right to propose all bills for raising revenue. When the electoral college fails to choose a President, the House selects one from the three presidential candidates having the largest vote.²

Nomination of presidential candidates

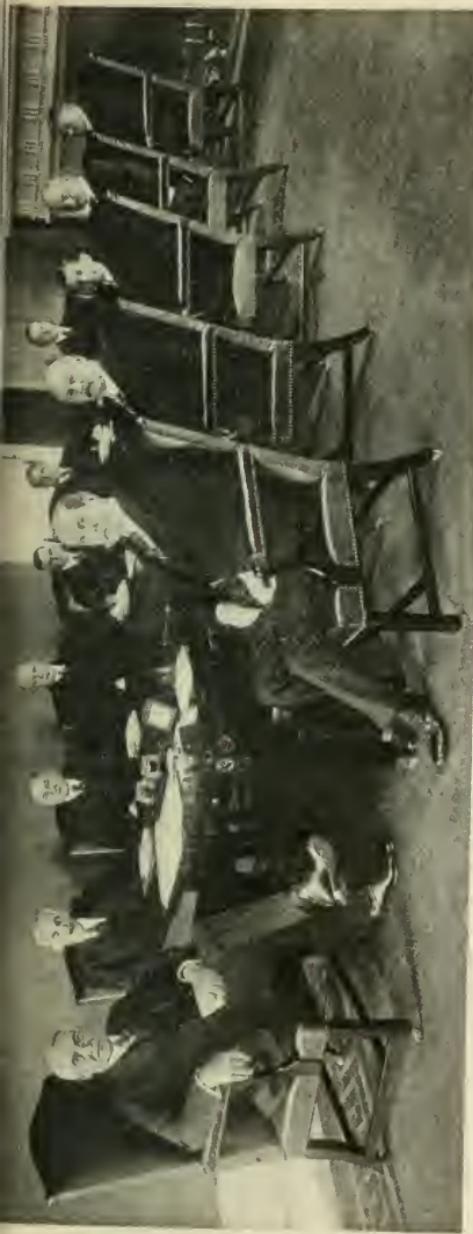
259. The Election of a President.—The Constitution was made before even most of the state governors were elected by popular vote. Technically, therefore, the President is elected not by the people, but by electors who are chosen by the voters of the country. Presidential elections occur every fourth year, which happens to be all years divisible by four. In the spring of a presidential year, each political party (§205) elects, usually in primaries (§208), delegates to a national nominating convention. The nominating conventions are usually held in June and number about one thousand members each. Each convention selects party candidates for the presidency and vice presidency and, in addition, adopts a platform of its principles or policies.

Popular and electoral elections of President

A popular election occurs on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The voters do not vote for the President or Vice President, but cast their ballots for electors, equal in number to the senators and representatives from their state. A majority of these electors must vote for any candidate for President or Vice President before that person is elected to the office for which he is nominated. The electors meet in their respective state capitals in January and cast the ballots, now five hundred and thirty-one in number, which elect the President.

¹ When the electoral college fails to select a Vice President, the Senate chooses one of the two candidates who has the highest electoral vote. If the House of Representatives impeaches a public official, the trial occurs before the Senate, and no person is convicted except upon a two thirds vote.

² If a national official is guilty of high crimes or misdemeanors in office, he may be impeached in the House of Representatives. Impeachment is only an accusation made against him charging that he is guilty of such offenses.



PRESIDENT HARDING AND CABINET

Copyright, Harris and Ewing

WHITE HOUSE WITH THE ADMINISTRATION OFFICES

Copyright, Harris and Ewing

Military,
administra-
tive, and
foreign
powers.

260. **Powers of the President.**—The President is the *chief executive* of the United States. He therefore has the chief civil authority within the country. *He appoints* personally, with the help of the Senate, nearly fifteen thousand important officials, and indirectly he is responsible for the appointment of several hundred thousand others.¹ He supervises the administration and enforcement of all national laws. *He is commander-in-chief of the army and navy.* The President has *absolute control of foreign affairs*, although he always deals with foreign countries through the Secretary of State (§ 309).

Legislative
powers.

If Congress passes a bill, the President has the right to sign it, to leave it without a signature, in which case it becomes a law at the end of ten days, or to *veto* it. If he exercises the power of veto, a bill does not become a law unless Congress passes it over the veto by a two thirds vote in each house. He may call special sessions of Congress and may send to that body general or special messages regarding affairs that he favors.²

Members,
position,
and work of
the cabinet.

261. **The Cabinet.**—The President is aided by a group of ten prominent officials who make up the cabinet.³ As a body they advise him regarding general policies that it is wise for him to follow, but the policies are his and not those of the cabinet. At present the cabinet is made up of ten members, including the secretaries of the Departments of State, Treasury, War, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. The Postmaster-General and Attorney-General are also members of the cabinet. As individuals these officials are heads of their respective departments and have almost complete charge of the work done within those departments.

¹ Most of the national officials secure office through the Civil Service Commission. In some cases other candidates for office are obliged to take civil service examinations.

² Washington, Adams, Wilson, and Harding addressed Congress in person instead of sending messages.

³ The Vice President now meets with the cabinet. Vice President Coolidge sits at the foot of the cabinet table.

266. The National Judiciary.—The national courts consist of one *Supreme Court*, nine *Circuit Courts of Appeals*, and many *District Courts*. The Supreme Court has nine judges, one of whom is called chief justice. The judges of the Circuit Courts of Appeals at present number thirty-three and there are now one hundred and four district judges. All national judges are appointed for good behavior; that is, they are practically appointed for life.

Composition of the national courts.



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Brandeis	Pitney	McReynolds	Clarke
Day	McKenna	Taft (C. J.)	Holmes
THE JUSTICES OF THE SUPREME COURT (1921)			

The national courts look after all cases that arise under the Constitution, the national laws, or the treaties. They also take charge of cases in which the parties to the suit are states, citizens of different states, or one party of which is a citizen of a foreign country.

Jurisdiction of the national courts.

STATE AND COUNTY GOVERNMENT

263. The State Constitution.—Each of the forty-eight states is a member of the Union. As such, it is practically

The states and their constitutions.

Some features of state constitutions.

Composition of the houses of a state legislature.

How a bill becomes a law.

self-governing, except for the matters controlled by the national government. Since the governmental work of the states and localities is very important, each state has a written constitution like that of the nation. Each constitution has been made by a constitutional convention and has been ratified by the voters of the state.

A constitution describes the central government of the state, which we call the state government, and outlines the main features of the government within the counties and other localities. The qualifications of voters are defined in the state constitutions, although the fifteenth and nineteenth amendments of the United States Constitution make manhood and woman suffrage universal throughout the Union.

264. The State Legislature.—All state legislatures are made up of two houses. The upper house is always called the Senate. Usually it is small. Its members are chosen for a longer term than are the members of the lower house. Some of the lower houses are quite large. Members are usually chosen for terms of two years each. Elections occur in November and the legislatures usually meet the following January.¹

The first form of a law is a bill. A bill may be introduced in either house by a member of that house. It must be read three times. In the newer states it must be submitted to a committee and reported back by the committee before it is considered again by that house. In the older legislatures and in Congress, bills are usually sent to committees, but there is no law requiring that a bill shall be "committed." A bill is passed in Congress and in the older legislatures by a majority of those present. In many of the newer states, however, a majority of those elected is required before a bill is sent to the other house. After a bill has been approved by both houses,

¹ In some states there is a short session, in which bills are introduced, a recess, and then a second session in which bills are passed.

the governor, like the president (§ 260), may sign it, or leave it without his signature, usually for ten days, after which time it becomes a law, or he may veto it. After a bill has been vetoed, it does not usually become a



STATE CAPITOL, ATLANTA, GEORGIA

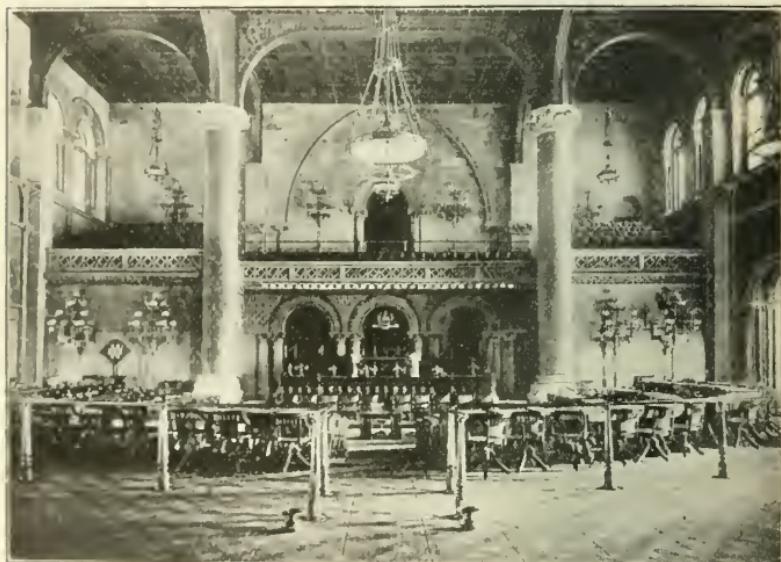
law unless it secures the assent of two thirds of each house of the legislature.¹

265. The Work of the State Legislature.—The legislatures overshadow the rest of our system of state government, since a legislature may make laws upon all subjects that are not expressly and exclusively granted to the American Congress, or denied by the national Constitu-

Some important subjects on which laws are made.

¹ In most of the states a two thirds majority is required, but in one or two no special majority is necessary. Either a governor or the President can veto a bill at the close of a session simply by failing to sign it. If Congress adjourns within the ten days, or the legislature adjourns within the ten or thirty days which the constitutions allow for the signature of the executive, a bill fails to become a law unless it is signed. This is called the pocket veto.

tion or by the constitution of the state to the legislature. All general laws under which our local governments and schools are organized, those referring to the state and local courts and procedure in these courts, those dealing with the making and enforcement of contracts, with the transfer of property, with marriage and divorce, with the prevention and spread of diseases, with the incorporation of business houses—all of these form only a part of the



ASSEMBLY CHAMBER, CAPITOL, ALBANY, NEW YORK

vast number under the charge of the legislatures. The whole covers a set of subjects of the first importance not only because they are so numerous, but because they are of such interest to us in our home and business life.

The state
governor.

266. The State Executive.—Most of the *state governors* are elected for terms of four years, although, in some of the northeastern states, one year is the term. The governor is the chief state executive and the head of

the militia; he appoints many state officials and boards and, as we have seen, he may veto bills.

Each governor has a great many *colleagues*, that is, associate administrative officials. Many of them are elected, but some are appointed. In a few states there are a large number of *administrative boards* or commissions. Some of these are well organized within a few

Other administrative officials and boards.



GOVERNOR STEPHENS OF CALIFORNIA AT HIS DESK

groups and act together very harmoniously; but in most states each administrative board works by itself.

267. The State Courts.—Almost all civil and criminal suits brought for trial in the United States are tried in state courts rather than in those of the nation. The highest state tribunal is usually called *the Supreme Court*; ordinarily it does not consider cases unless they have

Different state courts.

been tried first in a lower court. Below this highest court are usually courts, three or four in number, for the districts into which the state is divided. These are called

circuit or *district courts*. Below these, and frequently the lowest court in the system, is the *county court*. The judges of these courts are in one sense county officials, because they are elected by voters of the county, although the cases tried before them involve state laws much more frequently than local laws. In many states there are other local courts.



Photo by Brown Bros.

COOK COUNTY GOVERNMENT BUILDING
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Judges

eastern states, all judges are elected by the voters of the section within which the court has jurisdiction. The term of office of a state judge is seldom more than four years, except for the higher state courts, for which the term may be as long as twenty-one years.

Nature and
purpose of
a county.

268. **County Government.**—The American states are divided into counties, which are convenient areas for the administration of state laws. Counties also look after local affairs, especially those of a public nature affecting the rural districts. Some California and Maryland counties have charters made by themselves and approved by

Except in a few

the legislatures of the state. No other states allow a county to make its own charter.

Each county has a *county board*. This may be a board of supervisors, selected in New York by the voters of the townships. It is likely to be a board of commissioners, three or five in number, and elected either from districts or from the whole county. As a body, the county board supervises the affairs of the county, especially the work of other county officials, and takes care of finance, including the raising and expenditure of money. It looks after roads, bridges, county buildings, and other public improvements. It makes ordinances and in a general way supervises the enforcement of state laws within the county.

Besides its county board, each county has some *elected officials*. There is always a sheriff and a county attorney, and usually an assessor, a clerk, a treasurer, and an engineer. Possibly there may be other officials who are elected by the voters. There are also a number of *appointed officials and boards*, usually chosen by the county board. Ordinarily the term of office is either two or four years.

Composition and
work of the
county
board

County ad-
ministrative
officials.

CITY GOVERNMENT

269. The Charter.—Every city is governed under a written document called a charter. Usually the charters are given to the city by the state legislature, which provides charters of several classes. Very large cities are cities of the first class, cities of moderate size of the second or third, and small cities of the fourth, fifth, or lower classes. Different provisions may be given in the charters of the larger cities from those desirable in smaller communities.

Charters
granted by
state legis-
latures.

Several states allow the voters of each city to make their own charter. The California method is typical of

Home rule
charters in
several
states.

these. A city which votes for a new charter can elect a board of fifteen freeholders, each of whom must have owned land within the city for a period of at least five years. This board drafts a charter and submits it to public vote. If approved by the voters, it is then referred to the state legislature, by which it must be endorsed before it goes into effect.



CITY HALL, WATERBURY, CONNECTICUT

Composition
and
powers of
the council.

270. Forms of Municipal Government—Mayor and Council Type.—At present there are three types of city government in use: (1) the mayor and council type, (2) the commission form, and (3) the city manager plan. Under the mayor and council form, the council is usually a small body of one chamber, chosen from wards or districts into which the city is divided. The council makes ordinances, or local laws, for the city, raises revenue and decides how it shall be spent, borrows money with the consent of the voters, and grants franchises for city railways and other public utilities (§162).

The mayor is the chief executive official of cities that

have the mayor and council form of government. He is likely to have very little real authority, although he usually has some power of appointment. Ordinarily he may veto bills.¹

Position of a
city mayor.

271. Commission Government in Cities.—A large number of American cities, chiefly of medium size, use the commission form of government. The commission is an elected council, and has the powers of a council, but it is made up of the chiefs of three, five, or seven great departments of the city government. Some of these departments are finance, public safety, and public works. It is probable that the commissioners know the needs of the city far better than is possible for the members of an ordinary council, but the commission form has no head. Although a commission seems to be a united body, it is really the opposite.

Nature, ad-
vantages,
and defects
of commis-
sion gov-
ernment.

272. The City Manager Form.—The newest type of city organization provides for a city manager, in addition to either a commission or a council. The city manager is an expert, not necessarily a resident of the city, appointed by the commission or council and selected for the purpose of assuming entire control of city administration. Since the city is a public corporation, many people believe that a business manager, similar to the general manager of a business corporation, ought to be successful. Several hundred American cities now have city managers.

Nature of
business
organiza-
tion.

273. Elective Officials and Elections.—In most American cities, there are some elected officials besides the members of the body that makes ordinances. Among these is likely to be the chief financial official, who is known as an auditor or controller. Possibly a city clerk is also elected, and a city attorney. Other administrative heads may also be chosen by popular vote.

Officials
who may be
elected.

¹ In some cities the mayor has concentrated authority, and, with the aid of two or three colleagues, one of whom he may appoint, practically controls the municipal government.

Partisan
and inde-
pendent
nominations.

Municipal elections usually occur at a different time from state and national elections. There is a good reason for this arrangement. If city elections take place on the same day as those for the state or nation, the members of the city government are likely to be chosen because they belong to a certain party rather than for other good and sufficient reasons. In some cities, no candidates are nominated except by the Republicans and Democrats.¹ Many cities depend upon groups of independents for nominations to public office. Such citizen movements are likely to be of a temporary nature; therefore attempted reforms are often short-lived. If election to city office were a greater honor, if it were easier to secure the best candidates, and if the people were more interested, the problem of city elections and good municipal government would be very much simpler than it is.

Large num-
ber of ap-
pointive
officials.

274. Appointive Officials and Boards.—Since many American cities now have either commission government or the city manager form, most of the officials who were mentioned in the preceding section as elected are appointed by the person or body that has the appointive power. There are always some other administrative officials who are appointed rather than elected. Among these are probably a treasurer, a tax assessor and collector, and a city engineer.

Adminis-
trative
boards.

The administrative boards always include a fire board and a police board. In turn, these boards appoint the fire chief and the chief of police, and possibly the men in those departments. Sometimes there is a water board to look after that public utility and a board to care for boulevards and parks. Usually each city has a library board.

The members of these boards are ordinarily selected by the mayor with the consent of the council or by the

¹ If such cities have large independent leagues of voters who select from the party nominees those who will make the best city officials, such a scheme is not objectionable.

commission or by the city manager. Their tenure of office may be fixed and may be as long as four years. The application of the laws and management of city business constitute the chief work of a city. These are administrative tasks; consequently the duties of administrative officials and boards are very important. The regular employees of a city are often selected by a *civil service commission*, after examination.

Method of selection of city officials and employees.

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Questions

1. To what extent were the American people united before the Revolutionary War? What was the nature of the union during the war, and to what extent was it a government? When was the first legal union made, and by what name was it called? Discuss the problem of the constitutional convention and show how its main problems were solved. Quote the Preamble of the Constitution. How many amendments to the Constitution have been adopted and how have they been made? Explain four amendments.

2. What do you understand by Congress? For each house of Congress, state the following: name, number of members, method of election, term of office. When are elections held? When does a new Congress begin? What is the difference between the first and

* Primarily for teachers.

second regular sessions of any Congress? When special sessions are held, how are they called? Name one of the senators from this state and the congressman from this district.

3. What general powers does Congress possess? Quote the elastic clause. Explain the revenue powers possessed by Congress. What commercial powers are vested in Congress? What military and territorial powers does the national government possess? Name special powers of the Senate and explain two. What three special powers does the House of Representatives have?

4. How is a President nominated and elected? What do you mean by the term chief executive? What powers of appointment does the President possess? Who selects a postmaster for this community? What does the President do in connection with Congress? Name at least two other powers of the President.

5. Name the ten departments represented in the President's cabinet. Give names of President, Vice President, and three members of the present cabinet, stating what each did before he was chosen for his present position and what each has done since. Describe duties of each member of the cabinet as head of a department.

6. Of what three sets of courts is our national judiciary composed? For what term are national judges selected? How many judges are there in the Supreme Court? What kinds of cases may come before the national courts? Who is Chief Justice?

7. How many constitutions has this state had? What is the method of amending the constitution in this state? When was the present constitution made? Has it been amended greatly? What is included within our state constitution? According to the national and state constitutions, who may vote within this state?

8. For each house of our state legislature, give the following: name, number of members, term, and special powers. When do elections occur? How long does the legislature usually remain in session?

9. What is a legislative bill? Describe the process of changing a bill into a law. If a state governor or the President does not wish a bill to become a law, what does he do? How may the bill become a law in spite of him? What do you understand by the term "pocket veto"?

10. Enumerate several powers of the state legislature, showing that the legislatures overshadow the rest of our system of state government. Give the name, term of office, time of election, and chief powers of the governor of this state. Describe fully the system

of courts of our state, stating number of judges, term of office, and jurisdiction of each court.

11. Why are American states divided into counties? Should a county have a charter? If so, how should it be secured? What is a county board? Name the most important powers of the ordinary county board. What other elected officials are there in this county, and what is the work of each? Name some important officials appointed by the county authorities.

12. What is a city charter? How does a city get one from a legislature? How do the cities in some states organize home-rule charters? If possible, give the history of your city charter.

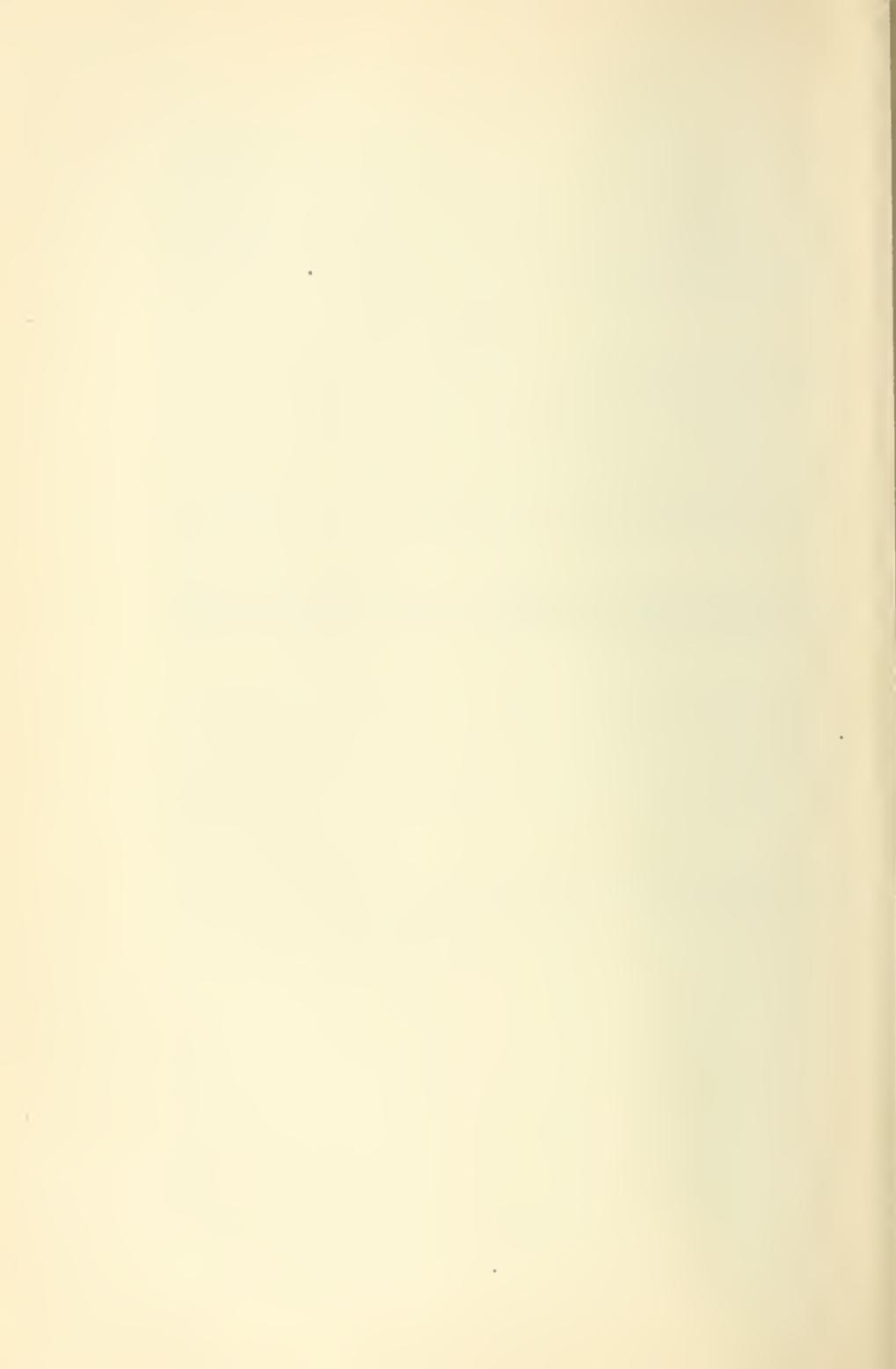
13. Name three types of city government. What does the council do in a mayor and council type? Name some powers ordinarily possessed by the mayor. Tell about the organization, advantages, and disadvantages of the commission form of government. What is a city manager, and why have many cities adopted the city manager form?

14. If you live within a city, make a careful study of the city charter. What city officials are chosen by popular vote in this city? What is the term of office and salary of each? If there is a council, state number of members and term of office. When do municipal elections occur? What is the objection to political party nominations for local offices? What important officials are appointed in this city? Who has the power of appointment? May the officials be removed? If so, by whom and under what circumstances? Name at least two boards that help to administer the work of this city.

15. To what extent would you consider this city well governed? What do you deem the greatest successes in its government? The greatest failure? What problems must be met soon? Have any new policies been suggested?

PART VI

THE CITIZEN, AMERICA, AND THE WORLD



CHAPTER XXI

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

1. The different races represented
 - a. The people of colonial times
 - b. English and Scotch immigration since 1776
 - c. The Irish
 - d. The Germans
 - e. The Scandinavians
 - f. New immigrants
2. Immigration
 - a. Periods of immigration
 - b. Location of immigrants
 - c. The immigrant as a worker
 - d. Social results of immigration
 - e. Laws restricting immigration
3. Americanization
 - a. The process of naturalization
 - b. The making of Americans

THE DIFFERENT RACES REPRESENTED

275. The People of Colonial Times.—When the American people declared their independence of Great Britain in 1776, they numbered but two and a half million, whereas to-day there are approximately one hundred ten million people in the United States. The population doubled practically every twenty-five years from 1700 to 1825, although during those years there was comparatively little immigration.

The New England colonies were settled almost exclusively by Englishmen of Puritan stock. Most of these people came from the middle classes, although a few of them had belonged to the gentry, or the country aristocracy, of the mother country.

Number of
people in
colonial
and later
times.

The people
of New
England.

Different
races in the
middle
colonies.

The middle colonies were settled by a comparatively large number of Englishmen, some of whom migrated from the New England colonies to New York or New Jersey, but many of whom came directly from England either to those colonies or to Pennsylvania. In New York a large number of people were descended from the original Dutch settlers. Along the Delaware river there were descendants of the original Swedes. In Pennsylvania was a large number of Germans, commonly known as Pennsylvania Dutch, who had come to this country at the suggestion of William Penn. In the foothills of the middle colonies and of the southern colonies were many Scotch-Irish settlers who had been driven out of northern Ireland in the first half of the eighteenth century.¹

Classes and
races in the
South.

The southern colonies were settled by more aristocrats and a larger number of the poorer whites than were the colonies farther north; therefore the middle classes were probably less represented than in other sections. Besides the English in the coast region and the Scotch-Irish settlers in the foothills, there were some French Huguenots, most of whom located in South Carolina. More than three quarters of the negroes lived in the southern colonies, although there were some in the North also.

Extent of
modern im-
migration
compared
with
colonial.

276. English and Scotch Immigration since 1776.—In 1500 there were no European settlers in what is now the United States. *The American people are, therefore, a race of immigrants.* The number that came annually to America in the years immediately preceding the World War was several times as great as the total number of Europeans who migrated to America before 1776.

Numbers
and char-
acter of
British im-
migrants.

Strange as it may appear, since 1776 probably twenty-five times as many immigrants have come to the United States from Great Britain or her provinces, chiefly Canada,

¹ See Ashley, *Modern European Civilization*, § 363, on the illiberal British policy toward Ireland in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

as came during the whole colonial period. Naturally these later immigrants could not have the influence upon America and American history that the earlier Englishmen had; but they aided the United States in many ways. They were thoughtful, industrious, and self-respecting people. Their interest in government has helped America in the working out of the democratic problems which she has been trying to solve for herself and the world.

277. The Irish.—Comparatively few of the Irish people came to America before 1845. The Scotch-Irish who arrived before that time are not included because they are really Scotch. In 1845, and in the years following, Ireland was afflicted by a great famine. During this period, more than a million of the Irish people left that stricken country and the migrations continued almost unabated until late in the nineteenth century. The total number that entered the United States was almost equal to the combined numbers of the English and Scotch peoples during the same period.

Most of the Irish immigrants remained in the northeastern part of the country, settling chiefly in cities. They interested themselves quickly in the politics of American cities. Their light-heartedness, quickness of wit, and lack of frugality have helped to develop these same characteristics in Americans.

278. The Germans.—In 1848 there were a series of revolutions throughout Germany.¹ These revolutions were repressed by the old autocratic governments, which drove most of the new, progressive liberals out of central Europe. Many of these men migrated to America. In later years the severe military policy of Germany was responsible for the exodus of many hundreds of thousands of young men from that country. German immigrants

Causes and extent of the migration from Ireland.

Irish characteristics that have become American.

Causes of German migration to America.

¹ See Ashley, *Modern European Civilization*, §§ 221-227.

have been more numerous than those from any other one country.

Location
and char-
acteristics
of German
immigrants.

Some of the Germans settled in northern cities, but more of them went to western farms. As a rule they were hard-working, persistent, thrifty people, ambitious to make a success of whatever work they undertook. They brought with them their well-known taste for good music. In America as well as in the old world they gave their attention with especial zeal to the applied sciences.

Causes of
Scandinavian
immigration.

279. The Scandinavians.—In the last half of the nineteenth century, a large number of Scandinavians migrated to America. A little more than fifty years ago, an economic revolution changed the methods of manufacturing goods and of raising crops in Scandinavian countries, reducing greatly the demand for labor. In consequence, after our Civil War, Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes came in large numbers.

Location
and qualities
of Scandi-
navians.

Most of the Scandinavians settled in the Northwest. As a rule, they went to agricultural districts where in those days they could easily obtain homesteads. They were hard-working, frugal people of simple tastes and frequently of considerable enterprise.

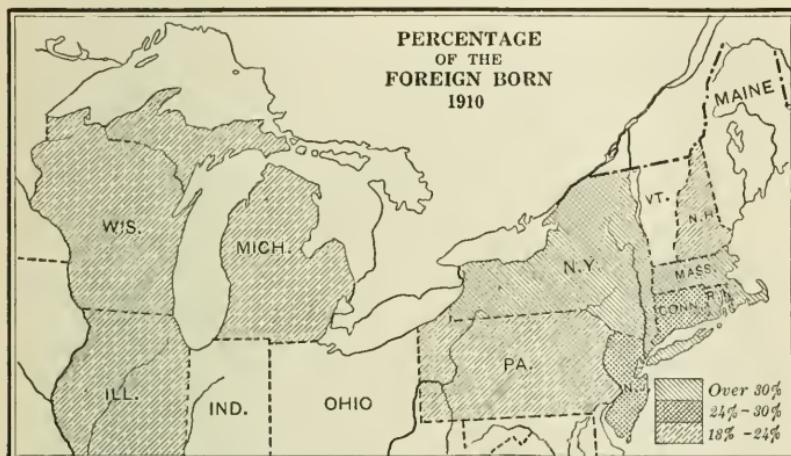
Extent of
recent im-
migration
from south-
eastern
Europe.

280. New Immigrants.—By 1890, the old immigration from western, central, and northern Europe had declined greatly; but from southern and eastern Europe came still larger numbers, especially Italians, Austrians, and Russians. In 1907, the total reached 1,285,349. At the close of that year, about one person in eighty within the United States was a newly arrived immigrant. By 1914, the number of *Austro-Hungarian* immigrants exceeded the total immigration from Ireland, that of *Italy* was only a little less than the number from Germany, and that from *Russia*¹ almost equalled the nineteenth century exodus of Englishmen and Canadians to the United States.

¹ The number of Slavic Russians was much smaller than that of either Poles or Russian Jews.

Into the *causes* of recent immigration we shall not have time to inquire. We must, however, notice some facts concerning immigration. *Illiteracy* has been much more common among these recent immigrants than it was among their nineteenth century predecessors from central and northern Europe. They do not belong to the same *races* as the people they found here; for recent arrivals

Why recent immigration has been less desirable than the old.



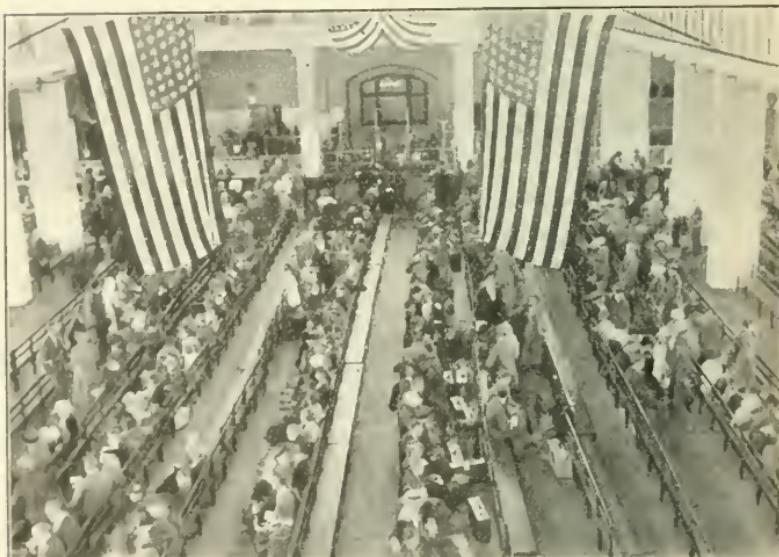
have been neither Celtic nor Teutonic, as were the early settlers and the immigrants of the mid-nineteenth century. They have lower *standards of living*, practically no experience in self-government, and probably *less capacity for self-government* than the earlier immigrants. If they are "birds of passage," coming for a season to return to their old homes with their savings, they add little and subtract much from American welfare. When they remain and become naturalized (§ 286), they usually prove desirable citizens. Many, however, do not become citizens.

IMMIGRATION

281. Periods of Immigration.—It can be seen from the preceding survey that migration from the old world to the

First two periods of foreign immigration.

new has occurred in several well defined periods. The earliest of these covered the seventeenth century,¹ when the Atlantic coast was being settled from the Savannah river to the bays of Maine. A second period of migration occurred during the first half of the eighteenth century. The foot-hill region of the Alleghany mountains was occupied largely by the Scotch-Irish immigrants, and



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MAIN WAITING ROOM, IMMIGRATION STATION, ELLIS ISLAND

there was a movement also of the frontiersmen from the coast settlements to the interior.

Before the great wave of foreign immigration started in 1845, there was a continued westward movement across the gaps of the Appalachian mountains to the Mississippi basin. This movement was one of the most important in all history because, on these wide prairies in the center of the United States, men came together from different

Westward
migration
of old
American
stocks.

¹ Most of this migration, outside of Pennsylvania and the Carolinas, came in the first half of the seventeenth century.

states, worked out new, advanced, and more democratic ideas, and formed what really deserves to be called the *American race*.

The third period of foreign immigration, which began with the Irish famines in 1845, continued until nearly the close of the nineteenth century and, as indicated above, brought chiefly Germans, Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Irishmen. In the last period, since about 1890, comparatively few immigrants have come from western Europe. Most of them have migrated, in some cases temporarily, from the countries bordering on the Mediterranean and from lands in southeastern Europe.

Last two periods of foreign immigration.

282. Location of Immigrants.—The immigrant of the mid-nineteenth century was inclined to follow in the footsteps of the progressive American of that day. In the terse phrase of Horace Greeley, the ambition of many was to "go West, young man, and grow up with the country." In those days many immigrants moved westward, settling either in the live, growing young towns of the West or preferably on the fine agricultural lands which Uncle Sam gave as homesteads to any adult citizen, or to a foreigner who intended to become a citizen, on condition that he should live on the land.

Settlement of nine-teeth century immigrants in the West.

In the last half century, immigrants have tended to do what the first settlers or immigrants did, that is, to locate at or near the points where they land. The early colonists did that of necessity, because it was necessary for them to be in touch with the Old World and therefore be near the seaboard. The newer immigrants have remained near the Atlantic seacoast for several reasons. Few of them have had a sufficient amount of money to take them far into the interior. Most of them have preferred to remain in race groups in the cities, where they are with their friends. Many also plan to return to their own country, either temporarily for a part of every year, or

Reasons for location of new immigrants on Atlantic coast.

permanently when they have saved a sufficient sum to make it worth their while.

Congestion
of new im-
migrants
in north-
eastern
cities.

In 1910, we find that practically three quarters of the people of foreign birth in the United States were in the northeastern section. Furthermore, we notice that three states, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, have absorbed more than half of the total number of immigrants that have entered the United States since the beginning of the present century.

Industry
but lack
of skill
of immi-
grants.

283. The Immigrant as a Worker.—Most immigrants have come to America in order to improve their condition. Some of them may have expected to do this without working very much; but the vast majority have been accustomed to hard labor and have proved industrious and useful citizens. When they first came, however, most of them did not know the English language, and comparatively few were prepared to do any but the crudest kind of labor. Especially in the northeastern cities we have therefore usually had an oversupply of unskilled workmen. This surplus of labor has caused hardship to native unskilled workers, because the American standard of living is higher than that of the immigrant. The native Americans were therefore forced to compete with these aliens on an unequal basis.

Three
changes
brought
about by
immigra-
tion.

As a result of the competition between the native and the foreign worker, the native-born Americans usually did one of three things. (1) They took advantage of the opportunities to get a good education in the American public schools and therefore no longer belonged to the class of common or unskilled laborers. In a sense they were forced out and up, and were therefore much better off than before. (2) They migrated to some place in the West where land was abundant, labor was scarce, and the demand for labor and the wages of labor therefore high. (3) When the workers could not find better work which

they could do either in their old home or in a new, they were obliged to compete with the foreigner on a comparatively low level.

The result of this competition was unsatisfactory because both wages and the old standards of living were lowered. From the standpoint of increased wealth, these immigrants, most of whom were young and strong, have been a great advantage to us. From the standpoint of living standards of the poorer American, however, they have been a serious disadvantage.

Results of foreign competition.

284. Social Results of Immigration.—In spite of laws which have sought to limit the immigration of those who might become public charges, we find that immigration has added to the *crime*, poverty, insanity, and illiteracy in the United States. We learn that although persons of foreign birth or foreign parentage number only one third of the total population, less than one half of the crimes traceable to white persons are committed by native-born Americans.

Increase of crime due to immigration.

The figures for *poverty* are more startling. In 1890, for example, although only fifteen per cent of the American people were foreign-born, immigrants formed forty per cent of the paupers receiving public aid. When we consider that many of these paupers are also insane, and that the cost of caring for the foreign insane and paupers in the single state of New York amounts to more than \$20,000,000 a year, we can see how great a burden has been placed upon the American people by the migration of these misfit or unfit members of society.

Cost to America of paupers and insane persons.

Among native white people of the United States, there is much less *illiteracy* than there was a quarter of a century ago. It is interesting to note that illiteracy is lowest among the native white persons of foreign parentage. Only about one per cent of the children of immigrants over ten years of age are unable to read or write.

Illiteracy among natives, children of immigrants, and the foreign born.

On the contrary, so many illiterate immigrants have come to America during the last twenty-five years that nearly thirteen per cent of the foreign-born white people are unable to read.

Summary of exclusion acts.

285. Laws Restricting Immigration.—In 1864, Congress created the office of immigration commissioner, for the purpose of looking after immigrants. It was not until 1882, however, that any law was made for the exclusion of foreigners. Since that year convicts, idiots, and persons likely to become public charges have been excluded. In 1884, Congress forbade the admission of aliens who had contracted to work in competition with American labor.¹ In the list of undesirables Congress more recently has included anarchists, convicts, and those with certain contagious diseases, including tuberculosis.² Illiterates above the age of sixteen, except wives or dependent parents of immigrants, are excluded by the law of 1917.

Immigration problem during reconstruction period.

Since the World War, *the reconstruction immigration problem* has become far more serious than it ever was before. During that struggle practically every country of Europe lost an immense amount of property and a large number of men. In many areas the devastation has been so widespread that it has been almost impossible for the peasants to make even the poor living that they made before the war. Immediately at the close of the contest, people were too poor to migrate; but, as soon as they had saved a little money, they besieged the steamship companies for passage to a country that had suffered comparatively little and that looked to them like paradise.

¹ Orientals are practically excluded either by law or by international agreement.

² If a steamship line brings one of these forbidden aliens to our shores, it is required to give that person return passage. This law helps to account for the fact that the number of excluded aliens has never risen above one per cent of those seeking admission to the country.

In 1921, Congress therefore passed a law restricting European immigration temporarily.

In the future the American people must study this problem of immigration more carefully. Although we should not close our doors to refugees who seek to escape

Features
of an im-
migration
policy.



Photo by Brown Bros.

BOARD OF LAST RESORT ON ADMISSION OF IMMIGRANTS

from political and religious oppression or who wish to get away from economic hardships, after all, our first duty must be to ourselves. Oriental immigration to the Pacific coast should be prohibited, and European immigration to the shores of the Atlantic should be limited as much as is necessary.

AMERICANIZATION

286. The Process of Naturalization.—Virtually all aliens are allowed to become citizens in order that they may really become Americans. If they lived here, but were not members of this nation, they would take comparatively little interest in American affairs. As

Why aliens
are allowed
to become
citizens.

they have come in large numbers, it is undesirable to have them in America without making them members or citizens.

The first
step in
naturaliza-
tion.

An alien can become a citizen only after *five* years residence in this country. He is obliged to take out two sets of papers. The first are called intention papers and are given to him when he goes before a federal court and declares that it is his intention to become a citizen of the United States. These papers may be taken out at any time after he has resided in this country one year. The court keeps a record of his statements and gives him



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EXAMINING APPLICANTS FOR AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

papers to show that he has declared his intention of becoming an American citizen.

The last
step in
naturaliza-
tion.

Not less than two years after intention papers have been granted to him, nor more than seven years after that time, the foreigner who wants to become a citizen

goes again before a court which keeps records. This time he may go either before a federal court or a state court. If he has been in this country five years and has done the things which the naturalization law demands, his application is considered carefully. If the court is satisfied that he would make a desirable American citizen,¹ he finally forswears his allegiance to the country of which he was formerly a citizen, and he becomes a full-fledged American citizen. Citizenship papers are then issued to him. When a married man is naturalized, his wife and minor children do not need separate naturalization papers.

287. The Making of Americans.—In the past, some Americans have felt that foreigners must be excluded from this country. They have believed that the large number of aliens who have come, ignorant and apparently degraded, are a menace to America and to her institutions. Looking back, we are grateful that our ancestors did not, or could not, take any action excluding Europeans from

Americanization in the past.



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GRANTING FINAL CITIZENSHIP PAPERS

¹ In the county of Los Angeles, state of California, and in some other localities, citizen papers are seldom granted unless the applicant has gone to a special school and taken a course in citizenship. The certificate which proves that the applicant has completed such a course is accepted by the court without further discussion. This is called the diploma plan of naturalization.

this country. In a single generation, the immigrant has often become one of the most loyal American citizens. His interests are as much American as they ever could have been European. In the public schools, the children of immigrants have understood American ideas and institutions as well as have those of older American stock.

Uses of education in the process of Americanization.

We have now begun a new movement for the Americanization of the immigrant. We have continued this further for the Americanization of those who have lived in America a much longer time. Education is the chief means by which we hope to complete this work of Americanization, to explain to the people what American institutions are, to show them for what America stands, and to help them appreciate the work that America is trying to do. The regular courses in citizenship and in civics that are given in our schools are of the highest value in Americanization, for those whom they reach. But unfortunately they can not reach the foreigner. Some special courses in citizenship and Americanization in night schools or in special immigration schools are of value in teaching American ways, plans, and ideals to the immigrant.

Building solidly for the future.

To make foreigners into true Americans, we must depend upon education, especially on free schools, which make no distinction of persons. We must depend also upon business, which makes the immigrant a useful, necessary worker and consumer in the community, and upon social intercourse. The immigrant may not understand us very well, and he may learn our language imperfectly, but he should be compelled to use it rather than his native tongue. Certainly it is our fault as well as his if his children are foreigners rather than Americans. We need not fear for the racial future of our country so long as the child of European parents loves the flag, longs to become a voter,

and boasts of the fact that he is an American. Such a course of action is good for him. It is not less good for us.

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Questions

1. Compare the population of the United States a century ago with what it is to-day. Who settled New England? Name and describe the most important races or groups to be found in the middle colonies. What social and racial differences do you find within the southern colonies?
2. Compare immigration from the British Isles before 1776 and since 1776 with reference to number of immigrants and influence on American history. What has been the character of the English or Scotch immigrants? What has been the importance of Irish immigration?
3. Name two other races, large numbers of which came to this country during the nineteenth century. Explain causes of the migration of each, show where the people settled, and tell what they were like. Indicate the importance of the migration in each case.
4. From what part of Europe have the recent immigrants come? Why have they less education than their predecessors? Why has the problem of recent immigration been different from that of the nineteenth century, and more serious?
5. Name the most important periods of foreign immigration. Show what areas were occupied in each case, and explain what races or localities furnished most of the settlers. How far west did any of the early immigrants settle?
6. Why have a very large percentage of immigrants been men? What kind of labor have most of these men furnished? Name three economic results of immigration, paying particular attention to the effect of the immigrant upon the native worker.
7. Name at least three social results of immigration and explain each in detail. Explain the most important national laws restricting immigration. What has been the problem of immigration in recent years?
8. Why do we allow aliens to become citizens? Describe the

* Primarily for teachers.

process of naturalization in detail. Considering the importance of citizenship, is it too easy to become a citizen? Do you believe that the process is too difficult?

9. What do you mean by Americanization? What percentage of recent foreigners have failed to become citizens? What is the educational problem of Americanization? Is there a problem of Americanizing natives of this country? Upon what other means shall we depend to make better Americans in the future?

CHAPTER XXII

THE COMMUNITY

1. Different kinds of communities
 - a. What is a community?
 - b. Rural communities
 - c. Location of cities
 - d. The people of a city
 - e. Two types of ordinary urban communities
 - f. Communities larger than the city but smaller than the nation
 - g. Nation communities
2. Community organization
 - a. General and political organization
 - b. Community organization of an industrial nature
 - c. Social community organization
 - d. Neighborhood organization
 - e. Social centers
 - f. Community spirit

DIFFERENT KINDS OF COMMUNITIES

Types and
limits of
communi-
ties.

288. What is a Community?—The name community is used in many different senses, to include almost any group from a neighborhood to a nation. It is well to limit the use of the term community, however, to a fairly well organized and unified group which occupies a rather definite but small area. In a large city, a neighborhood which was practically a city by itself before it was absorbed by the metropolis might deserve to be called a community. The ordinary city, numbering from twenty-five thousand to two or three hundred thousand inhabitants, gives us the best possible type of true community. It is especially typical if the municipality is neither a

suburb of a larger city nor encircled by towns or villages whose life is really a part of the life of the larger community.

289. Rural Communities.—The center of a rural community is likely to be a village. If the village is surrounded by farming country, the people of which have interests in common with one another, the rural community may be just as truly a community as is a city. In one sense it has a better and truer community spirit because its population is not shifting and its members have known each other and each other's families for a long time.

The New England township or town is a good example of this type of community, centering around the village life. The town meeting, which manages most of the town affairs, has been an assemblage of all men of the community; it now includes all women. All those who wish come together once a year or oftener to discuss problems, select community leaders, and decide important community questions.

No rural community should seek to organize itself as does a city. Its interests are not like those of a municipality, and the classes of people of which it is composed are different. In these days of fairly good roads, there is no reason why rural communities should not develop better school systems, replacing several scattered and struggling schools by one first-class graded school. The schoolhouse or town hall of the village should be the social center (§ 299) for gatherings of all the people. In such meetings the members of the community can become better acquainted and develop a real *community center*. By investigation they can find out what are the most pressing community problems, and by discussion they can find the best ideas for the solution of each. Under proper leadership such a community can do infinitely more for

The village
as the
center of a
rural com-
munity.

The New
England
town.

Something
that an
organized
community
can do.

its people than most rural communities have ever attempted.

Reasons for
present
location of
commercial
cities.

290. **Location of Cities.**—Most communities are not rural but urban. In the United States there are more than fifteen hundred cities with a population of 5,000 or more. The location of these cities is not a matter of chance, but is due to several well defined causes. New York City is the largest American metropolis because of the advantages which New York harbor has for foreign trade and because of the easy access which the city had in the past and now has to the interior of the country. Chicago, near the southern end of Lake Michigan, is close to the heart of the interior. It taps the trade of many states; from it numerous railway lines reach out in all directions. San Francisco, New Orleans, and Boston are other good examples of *commercial cities* whose location is particularly good for trade. They become the depots through which the people of their section receive goods and send goods to the outside world.

Names and
locations of
important
manufacturing
cities.

Not all cities are distinctively commercial cities like those which we have named. Some are devoted to manufacturing. In consequence, they are probably located near the source of the raw materials of which they make the most use. Meat-packing centers, for instance, those situated along the Missouri river, Omaha, St. Joseph, and the Kansas Cities, are good examples of this type of industrial center. Pittsburgh is our greatest steel center because Pennsylvania is our greatest coal state and formerly produced much of our iron. Birmingham owes its rise to the nearby deposits of both coal and iron. Many other *industrial cities* are located at waterfalls. Minneapolis with its water power easily became the milling center for the great wheat area of Minnesota and the Dakotas. Along the "fall line" of New England, cities like Lowell, Providence, and Fall River have developed.

291. The People of a City.—More than half of the people of the United States live in cities of more than twenty-five hundred inhabitants; for we have ceased to be an agricultural and rural nation and have become an industrial and commercial one. Most American communities are made up of Americans, at least some of whose ancestors lived in this country; and yet our larger cities, especially in the northeastern part of the country, are not American in this sense. More than seventy-five per cent of the people of Greater New York, of Chicago, and of some other large cities are either foreign-born or are the children of immigrants. Most of the residents in some of our cities of moderate size are of alien birth or of foreign parentage.

Large percentage of foreigners in cities.

Although there are more men than women in the United States, there are more women than men in our cities. One reason for this is the fact that more men than women are needed on the farms. Another reason is that the demand for women workers in cities is greater than that for men because factories and stores can employ women for a lower wage than men.

Large number of women in cities.

There is a real difference between the ordinary countryman and city dweller in ideas and in practices. We think of the solid virtues as belonging to the boy brought up on the farm. City life, however, develops those habits which make a person more alert, more sociable, and more adaptable. The city boy probably can work out life problems more easily than his country cousin, although it is his misfortune to live farther away from nature.

Characteristics of city boys.

292. Two Types of Ordinary Urban Communities.—One type of community spirit is possible in a rural community, in a village, or town, or in a slow-going city. The community has certain traditions which it cherishes. It has a definite attitude towards its problem. A community of this type is likely to be conservative, possibly

The small conservative or stagnant community.

because it is more proud of the past than anxious to solve new problems as they arise. Its schools are likely to be good, but not of the latest type. There probably is less poverty and strife than in a younger community that is growing more rapidly. Unless business is stagnant, there are fewer people out of work because the laborer knows what situations may be offered, and the number of workers is likely to equal the number of positions. Such a community is like a middle-aged person, quiet, easy-going, and rather successful.

The growing,
aggressive
American city.

Most American cities are not of this type. They are continually growing and changing. The people have not had time, or taken time, to think out community problems,

to find out what they want to do, or to decide upon some definite policy for the good of everyone. The city officials probably represent one group or faction rather than the whole community. The people are content so long as taxes are not too high, and so long as there is not too much graft or inefficiency in the



NEW YORK TOWN HALL

government, or too much interference with business. In short, this type of city has the aggressive, careless ways of youth.

293. Communities Larger than the City but Smaller than the Nation.—It is difficult to treat so large a metropolis as Greater New York as a community. In fact, it is not one community but several communities, each of which must be considered and studied separately. Nevertheless, since a *metropolis*¹ is under a single government and in other ways acts as a unit, it is organized and governed much as a community is organized and governed. Moreover, the problems of a metropolis differ not so much in kind as in degree from the problems of a smaller city or real community. If we understand what a community is like and what community organization is, it is therefore possible to apply what we have learned about the community to the study of a metropolis—its government, finances, industries, commerce, and other problems.

The United States of America is composed of states or commonwealths, large and small. As communities, however, Rhode Island and Texas can not be considered together any more than the needs and problems of Nevada and New York can be settled by the same treatment. The government of these states or commonwealths has been examined in an earlier chapter. Their economic conditions and problems have been discussed when we considered the relation of business to government (§§161–169). Their financial problems, so far as they affect public revenue, are treated in Chapter XIX.

294. Nation Communities.—The *nation* is often treated as a community, since it is a great group or society which must have organization. This organization must include a government. Rules or laws must be made to regulate the affairs of the members of the nation in their dealings with one another. In this sense, therefore, a nation is a very large community. This is also true if a nation has

Similarities between an ordinary community and a metropolis.

States as communities.

The nation as a community.

¹ Metropolitan New York really includes such communities as Jersey City and Newark, which have separate governments because they are in a different state.

national ideas and ideals which are accepted and supported by most of the people. One of the most important phases of national community spirit (§ 300) we call patriotism.

Possibility
of a world
community
of nations.

In these days, when a *league of nations* has been formed to bring together the different countries of the world in order to promote peace and other common interests, it may be possible to speak of a *world community* among civilized races. The world community, however, has not been organized as a single group of people, because it has not developed unity as a group, nor has it worked out group ideas and ideals. The day may come, however, when it may be possible for each of us to say as did Fénelon, the great tutor of Louis XIV, nearly three centuries ago, "I am a citizen of the world."

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

The prob-
lem of
constant
changes in
city gov-
ernment.

295. General and Political Organization.—Every city must study its own population, situation, and needs in order to determine what kind of community organization it should have. A kind of organization that would be suitable for a city of the conservative type might not be adapted to a growing community. The average American city seems to be more interested in experimenting with different forms of city government than it is in working out, carefully and thoughtfully, those forms of government best adapted to its public needs. Apparently it prefers a form different from that which it has. When a change is made, it probably adopts the new form after considerable discussion, but with comparatively little study.

Importance
of non-
political
community
organiza-
tion.

Community organization does not consist solely or even chiefly of city government. Community needs are very much greater than those which can be satisfied by any municipal government. The chief community leaders

are not necessarily the public officials chosen at election. It is probable that even less attention has been given to the problem of studying community organization of a nonpolitical type than has been given to city government. Yet few questions are more important for every community.

296. Community Organization of an Industrial Nature. —Every *business company* is in a way a community organization, because it helps to satisfy community needs. It may do this simply by selling goods that the people want. It may be a street railway or some other system of transportation. It may be an *industrial plant*, which uses the materials that the city produces or brings in. If so, it may turn them into finished products, which may be sold within the city. More frequently the goods are prepared for other markets, for which the city is a distributing center. A factory is a community organization for another reason; it furnishes employment to many workers. Working men and women have their chief interest in the plant in which they are engaged many hours a day, six days a week. Their homes may be clustered about it and their family life is probably centered in the neighborhood of which the plant is an important part.¹

Often a business organization has a distinctively civic nature. Merchants and manufacturing associations, boards of trade, and chambers of commerce are organizations that are not trying chiefly to develop the separate businesses of their members. Most of these bodies are concerned especially with the development of business opportunities within the city in which they operate.

Different businesses which are part of a community's organization.

Civic character of business organizations.

¹ More important from the community point of view than the separate factories or transportation lines and depots are the *organizations* which bring these business interests together. Coöperation between different factories and plants may be of a distinctively businesslike nature such as, for instance, a coöperative organization or a consolidated system of railways or transfer service.

Some of them take the name "*Chamber of Commerce and Civic Association*" in order to show that their interest is not solely in business, since it includes work for civic betterment, not as a side issue, but as one of the main reasons for existence. In many communities these groups or organizations of business men are the chief guiding and directing forces of a civic character.

Religious associations for civic betterment.

297. Social Community Organization.—An entirely different type of community organization is found in churches and schools. Like an industrial plant, every *church* and every *school* is a center for its members or students. In cities that are not distinctively commercial or industrial, church and educational centers are quite as important as any headquarters of a business nature. Leadership in the community frequently comes from clergymen as individuals or through ministerial unions. A group of ministers may work alone; usually the group coöperates with the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A., because those associations support all movements for civic improvement and for moral uplift.

Educational and welfare clubs and federations.

Societies of women in connection with churches or schools are constantly studying civic problems. Parent-teachers associations are among the most active of the agencies attempting to develop the neighborhoods into true communities within the larger community, the city. Welfare, recreational, and health organizations are making our cities not only more sanitary but in other ways better places in which to live. When these organizations and a larger number of other *civic clubs are federated*, they form a better organized body for the study and development of a civic policy than any other community organization.

Limited use of neighborhood organization.

298. Neighborhood Organization.—Some of these organizations work only in the city at large, but many are unions of neighborhood groups. A neighborhood may be

a true community if it has rather definite boundaries within the city of which it is a part, and is more or less homogeneous. Therefore its people have common interests and activities. In a very few cities, including parts of Chicago and Cincinnati, neighborhoods have been organized in order to carry on a number of activities, such as those concerned with education, health, and recreation.

Some neighborhoods have *community councils*, composed of several officials, aided by the chairmen of numerous committees.¹ The community council tries to organize the neighborhood into a unified community group, aims to direct the activities of different civic associations within the neighborhood, and seeks to work out a policy of its own.

A neighborhood association may be organized for a single purpose, such as the improvement of streets and parks within that particular district. Its purpose may be distinctively recreational, to supervise playgrounds, public dances, community plays, and motion picture theatres or other places of amusement. Its work may be to bring its people together to discuss and debate public questions. When an election occurs, it may even enter politics, usually an unwise procedure, in order to have public officials who favor the neighborhood or to secure measures that will benefit the locality. Whether its work is health, general welfare, education, recreation, or the discussion of business affairs, the association needs a single neighborhood center.

299. Social Centers.—Community organization finds its best expression in the social center. The schoolhouse may be a social center, because schoolhouses must be located throughout the city. Ordinarily a schoolhouse

Composition
and
work of the
community
council.

Different
purposes of
a neighbor-
hood organ-
ization.

The part
that the
schoolhouse
may play in
community
life.

¹ The community council is not simply a group made up of representatives from several social and business organizations. Such a group of representatives would not have very much authority, nor would it have a great deal of influence in directing the work of the different groups which it represents.

has a hall or room where the men and women of the neighborhood may gather for talks, lectures, and entertainments, or for discussion. Every schoolhouse should have playgrounds which can be the center of play activities for children of the neighborhood. There is no reason why the playgrounds should not be supplemented by rooms suitable for games, dramatics,¹ and other play



SOCIAL CENTER

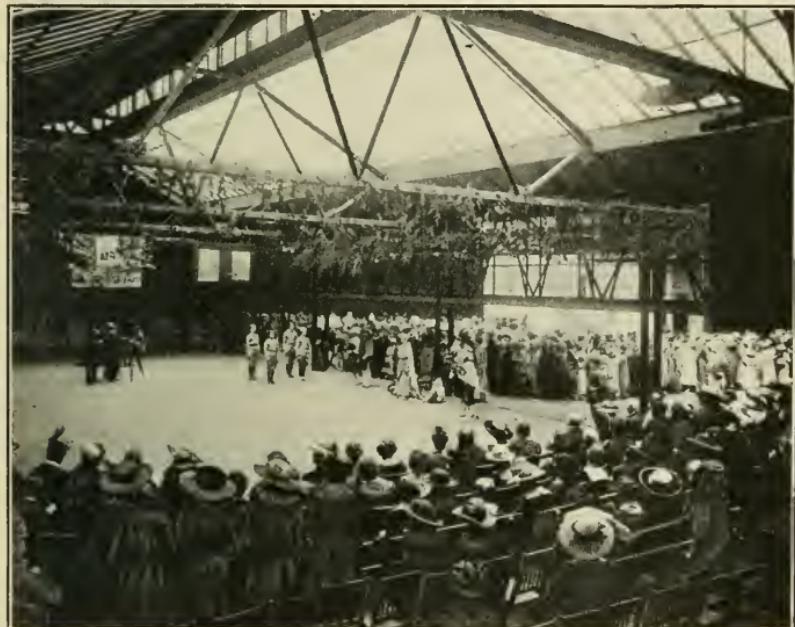
activities of youths or of adults. There may be rooms furnished as reading rooms or even as branch libraries. Some schools have gymnasiums and plunges, but few elementary schools provide such advantages.

In a first-class social center, the art of getting acquainted should be developed. Residents of one street should learn to know those of neighboring streets or districts. They should learn the tastes and interests of their neighbors.

What may
be done in
a social
center.

¹ If there is a good-sized platform with some stage scenery in a school assembly room, plays can be furnished.

They should discover what work is being done by this neighborhood group or community, should study its problems, and should find out what it needs. Most of the friction and the majority of the failures in life are due to ignorance and misunderstanding. Even if the social center can not organize a neighborhood group into a real



COMMUNITY PAGEANT

unit, it can at least make the neighborhood count for more than it has done in the life of the community.

300. Community Spirit.—Almost every community has some individuality. Each is likely to have an atmosphere. Each has ambitions, goals, and methods of its own that make it distinct from any other community. These aims may not be high, and the work done may not be of a worthy nature. If the goal is simply to make money, and the object of community organization is to

The wealth-seeking community.

produce more dollars, the community spirit will be mercenary. In such a community, class hatred is easily developed, because each man or group or class is anxious to gain for himself or his fellows at the expense of those with whom he is associated in business.

Good civic
spirit in
business
centers.

If the underlying purpose of any community is selfish and mercenary, it is almost impossible to counteract this spirit by organizing the community for civic improvement and betterment. On the other hand, a community may be anxious to make all the money possible, but, at the same time, it may have a fine community spirit. This may be due to the fact that *the community as a whole is better organized* than are the men whose souls are set on money-making. It may be due to good leadership, to a type of government well adapted to the city's needs, and to especially able public officials. It may be due, although usually it is not, to an excellent organization of the civic forces of the community.

Leadership
in orga-
nization as
causes of
civic spirit.

In most American cities, it must be admitted that the groups that are working separately for some type of civic betterment do not understand each other's purposes, principles, and achievements, and therefore do not work together. In such communities, civic spirit is an accident. Civic spirit may be good in spite of poor civic organization, because of the high character of the people who live in the community. It may be due to the work of a few leaders in the past who set up for the city high ideals.

Need of
civic organi-
zation of
all civic
groups.

A city should have a definite goal which it tries to reach; it should hitch its "wagon to a star." A watchword or slogan frequently helps in developing civic spirit, just as a class yell or school song arouses school spirit. *The best community spirit, however, is not possible without good organization of the forces making for civic righteousness.* It should be the aim of every American city to bring together all groups that are working for the city in any

way and let all of them make their contribution to civic betterment and a finer civic spirit.

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Questions

1. What is a community? Describe a rural community. What are some of the problems of the rural community or village?
2. Explain why large cities are located where they are. Dis-* Primarily for teachers.

tinguish between cities chiefly commercial and those that are distinctively industrial. Name some of each and show their situation. (Use the map.)

3. Why do cities contain a larger percentage of immigrants than are found in the country? Why are there more women than men in cities? Why are there more young men and young women in the cities than elsewhere?

4. Describe a conservative urban community. Of what importance are its community problems? Why is it difficult to organize a growing community? Name at least two problems of such a community.

5. What is the relation of a metropolis to an ordinary community? How are metropolitan and community problems alike? Why is it difficult to discuss all American states (commonwealths) at the same time? Why is it possible to consider a nation as an enlarged community? In what sense only is it possible to speak of a league of nations or a world state as a world community?

6. What is the attitude of the ordinary city toward its government? What group organization of a civic character is made by every first-class community? What businesses are civic in character? Explain your answer.

7. In this community, name at least a half dozen organizations of a civic type. If possible, tell what each is doing and whether there is a federated group of organizations connected with each set of activities. What is your idea of a neighborhood? What do you understand by a social center? In what ways is a social center a training school in democracy?

8. If the people of a city have come together chiefly for money-making, in what ways can they create the right kind of civic spirit? What can each of the following contribute to community spirit: (a) better government, (b) better organization of welfare and betterment activities, (c) civic goals that are worth reaching, and (d) the development of a wise and broad civic policy?

CHAPTER XXIII

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Interrelation of modern nations

1. General
 - a. International law
 - b. International organizations before 1918
 - c. The League of Nations
2. America and the world
 - a. "Splendid isolation"
 - b. America and world peace
 - c. The Monroe Doctrine
 - d. The United States as a world power
3. International methods and defense
 - a. The making of treaties
 - b. The consular service
 - c. The American army
 - d. The American navy
 - e. The future

301. Interrelation of Modern Nations.—It is only a few centuries since nations of the modern type came into existence. In dealings with one another, these nations have had numerous problems and disputes. Some of these disputes have led to wars and even to prolonged and widespread conflicts.

The general relations of one nation to another are called diplomatic relations, and the discussions held between them are known as *diplomacy*. As a rule, the conclusions arrived at have been embodied in treaties, which are international agreements, binding until broken by one of the parties. For centuries it has been customary for each nation to have a diplomatic representative at the capital of every other important country. These inter-

Modernness
of nations
and of
international
relations.

Diplomatic
relations
of nations.

national agents or diplomatic representatives are known as ambassadors or ministers. It is interesting to note that the ambassador's person is sacred. The building in which he resides and does business is treated as a part of his own country and not as territory controlled by the government to which he has been sent.



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FRENCH EMBASSY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Commercial
relations
and rival-
ries.

The modern world has grown very small since the steam engine and the electric telegraph have reduced distance by land and sea. It is now possible for the peoples of the world to exchange ideas and also to trade on a scale that was impossible in earlier centuries. The vast expansion of international commerce can be indicated by a single statement; in 1914 the volume of the world's trade was twenty-five times as great as it was a hundred years earlier, when Napoleon was overthrown by his enemies. Because every nation wishes to do as much

business as possible, there has been rivalry among the great powers over the acquisition of new colonies, and each has tried to make commercial treaties that would increase its trade, even at the expense of some other country. Nations have also built high tariff walls, which have excluded from the home country and from its colonies foreign-made goods that might injure business, especially manufacturing. It can thus be seen that international trade rivalry, that is, the scramble for the almighty dollar, may very easily be at the bottom of disputes between nations and possibly of great wars.

GENERAL

302. International Law.—As we have already noticed, the fundamental law of any people is called *constitutional law*. It is made up of national and state constitutions and of important laws necessary to explain those fundamental documents. We have also studied a second type of law, the kind which we ordinarily call by that name. These are the statutes made by the national Congress (§257) and by the state legislatures (§264). This kind of law is called *statute law*.

Laws used
within
nations.

Both constitutional and statute law deal with problems within the United States. If, however, a problem arises on the high seas or in Europe, or anywhere outside of the boundaries of the United States of America, we find that no country pays any attention to the laws of Congress or of our different states. For the dealings of one nation with another, it is necessary, therefore, to have a system of rules, not made by one nation, but agreed upon by many. These rules are called *international law*. Since there has never been an international legislature, these rules are usually made in conferences or conventions and are ordinarily embodied in treaties signed by a number of important nations.

Need and
character
of inter-
national
law.

Difficulties
in enforcing
international
law.

Not only has no international lawmaking body ever existed, but there has never been an international executive, like our president or the king of a European country, who could enforce the international rules. For nearly a quarter of a century, however, there have been international courts. We can see, therefore, that since we have not had an international government, the rules known as international law have never been complete, nor have they been very definite. If any nation wished to break them in time of peace, it usually did so. In time of war, it was practically impossible for one country to force another against its will to observe an international rule.

International
Congress
(1814-
1878).

303. International Organizations before 1918.—Until the year 1899, there were no permanent international organizations. At the close of an important war, there were always conferences or congresses composed of representatives from the nations concerned, and possibly from a few other powers that were interested. The Congress of Vienna in 1815 was supposed to be such a conference and was called for the purpose of rearranging the boundaries of European countries that had been conquered by Napoleon.¹ The Treaty of Paris at the close of the Crimean War (1856) and the Treaty of Berlin at the close of the Russo-Turkish War (1878) were made by similar conferences, called to decide important problems of the Near East. These bodies were made up almost exclusively of diplomatic representatives interested in a particular set of problems.

The two
Hague
Peace Con-
ferences.

In 1899 there was held, at the capital of the Dutch Netherlands, the First *Hague Peace Conference*. In 1907 a Second Peace Conference was held in the same city. Although these peace conferences were no more permanent than the earlier peace conferences, they were after all of a different character. They represented practically all

¹ Ashley, *Modern European Civilization*, §§170-171.

important civilized nations and were called not to settle disputes over which nations had been fighting, but to agree upon general principles of international usage and to prevent future wars.¹

Out of the Hague conferences grew a permanent tribunal, which we call the Hague Court. This is a board of more than a hundred members. This tribunal has not had the right to decide many disputes, because no nation is compelled to submit any international problems to the court. Moreover, no important case involving territory, or the jurisdiction of a government, or the international honor of any country has ever been brought before the Hague tribunal.

304. The League of Nations.—Even before the World War broke out in 1914, many public-spirited and far-sighted people had been working on plans for a league of nations or some other type of international government. Many plans had been proposed, among them the suggestions of the League to Enforce Peace, of which William H. Taft was the head. In the peace conference which was held in Paris² in 1919 to decide the terms that should be enforced against Germany and her allies in the World War, it was proposed that there should be a League of Nations. The constitution of the *League of Nations* was therefore made a part of the treaty with Germany.³

This constitution of the League was signed at the beginning by the representatives of thirty-two states. Provision was made that new states might join, with the

¹ Undoubtedly, those who were interested in these conferences hoped to reduce the armaments of the world, so that it would not be necessary to have as large standing armies and as great navies as before. They wished, also, by agreeing upon certain rules or laws, not only to prevent the development of disputes, but, after trouble did arise, to settle them without resort to war. It is needless to say that the Hague conferences really did not succeed, since they were followed by the greatest war of all history.

² The treaty that was made by the conference is called the Versailles Treaty, as sessions were held in the palace of Versailles.

³ The United States afterward made a separate treaty with Germany. At this time it is not a member of the League of Nations.

Composition,
powers, and
failures of
the Hague
tribunal.

Proposal
to form an
international
government.

Constitu-
tion of the
League of
Nations.

consent of two thirds of the League Assembly. The government of the League consists of an Assembly and Council. The Assembly is made up of representatives from the different member states. Each member has one vote but none has more than three representatives. In the Council are representatives of the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan, and four chosen by the Assembly. The Council rather than the Assembly takes charge of League



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FIRST SESSION OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS ASSEMBLY
GENEVA, SWITZERLAND

affairs. There is a Secretariat, composed of a Secretary General and assistants, which looks after routine business. Geneva, Switzerland, has been selected as the permanent seat of the League.

The League,
Conferences,
and the
United
States.

The League held its first meeting at Geneva in the fall of 1920, fifty-three members being represented. The United States had not agreed to the peace treaty with Germany, or upon the League constitution, and therefore

was not represented. The United States has taken the lead in calling disarmament conferences, supplementary to the League, to discuss specific international problems. The Conference in Washington in 1921 was the first of these. The time has passed when any nation can exist as a great power by itself and for itself alone. Since it has constant and important relations with other nations, it must work with them or lose its place as a civilized power.

AMERICA AND THE WORLD

305. "Splendid Isolation."—The United States has been most fortunate in its geographical situation. It is located in the north temperate zone in one of the finest areas on the face of the globe. Its eastern shores touch the Atlantic and its western slopes reach the Pacific. The future will show how commanding is this position in the heart of the western continent and in the pathway of advancing civilization, controlling, in a sense, the two great oceans of the earth.

How different is the situation in Europe, where the countries are small and usually have no natural boundaries to protect them. Each touches elbows with its neighbors, most of whom speak a different language, have different national ideals, and oppose the expansion if not the normal development of the adjacent country. Whereas controversies between European states have been constant, America has been able to develop as she wished. Separated from Europe by three thousand miles of ocean, we have gone our own way, working out our own problems by ourselves.

We are indebted to Europe for many of the institutions and other elements of civilization that we ourselves now have; but Europe has been too far away to force us to do anything we preferred not to do. Consequently Amer-

Importance
of America's
location.

Contrast
between the
international
situation
in Europe
and in
America.

Relations
between
Europe and
America.

ican ideas, forms of government, and business methods have been different from those used on the other side of the Atlantic. Although we have engaged in several wars with European countries, we have been drawn into these only when the causes were American rather than European. We have not needed a large standing army to protect our borders from foreign invasion, nor until recent years have we felt the need of a large navy, either for defense or to safeguard our numerous interests abroad.

Advice of
early Ameri-
can states-
men on for-
eign policy.

Until the closing years of the nineteenth century, we followed a policy of "splendid isolation." We looked back with pride to the suggestions of our first president that we should not take active part in European affairs, of the great founder of the Democratic party that we should avoid "entangling alliances," and of those who promulgated the Monroe Doctrine that we should prevent Europe from dominating the weak Latin-American republics. In recent years, however, we have been forced to abandon this policy of isolation.

America as
a neutral
and as a
champion
of neutrals.

306. America and World Peace.—From the beginning of her history, the United States has exerted her influence to secure *the rights of neutrals* against the interference of countries that were at war. When George Washington was president, a proclamation of neutrality was issued (1793) declaring that the United States would not take part in the great European war that was then being fought. In the first part of the World War, the United States tried to remain neutral; later, she was forced to enter the conflict because of the submarine warfare carried on by Germany against all countries.

Settlement
of inter-
national
disputes
by arbitra-
tion

A century ago *international arbitration* was almost unknown. The United States and Great Britain had submitted minor disputes to boards which examined each problem and made suggestions for its settlement. In later years, the United States used her influence to decide

disputes by arbitration rather than by resort to force. Especially was this the case if the dispute existed between Great Britain and the United States. It was not until the twentieth century, however, that the world came to realize the benefits of settling all minor difficulties in this way. About ten years after the opening of the century, hundreds of arbitration treaties were signed by the leading countries of the world; each agreed that if controversies were not too vital, they should be decided by arbitration.

307. The Monroe Doctrine.—The most important of all foreign policies of the United States is called the Monroe Doctrine. The doctrine was first announced in 1823. At that time the former Spanish-American colonies had proclaimed and were maintaining their independence; but the autoocratic governments of continental Europe had offered aid to Spain in reconquering them. Against this action the United States protested. She asserted that she had never interfered in distinctively European affairs and that therefore Europe should not interfere in distinctively American affairs. She declared that *the American continents were no longer subject to further European colonization.*

This doctrine has been expanded since it was first announced. When we found that powerful European nations were trying to collect debts, and in the collection bring the weaker American countries under their subjection, we protested against debt collection as an excuse for political domination by Europe. When Great Britain tried to decide a boundary dispute with Venezuela by seizing land of that republic, we again objected. Still later, President Roosevelt asserted that Europe should not interfere in the government or in the affairs of any Latin-American country on any pretext. He admitted, however, that if we allow no interference, we

The original
Monroe
Doctrine
(1823).

Develop-
ment of the
original
Monroe
Doctrine.

must accept responsibility for good government in those countries and must see that Europe gets a square deal.

Since we took part in the World War, many people believe that the Monroe Doctrine no longer has the importance that it had formerly. This is probably true, but we must keep this one fact in mind: the United States did not break the Monroe Doctrine when she sent troops to Europe; she entered the World War because Germany was interfering with her in America and elsewhere, not because Germany was committing atrocities in Europe.

308. The United States as a World Power.—At the present time the affairs of the world are dominated by the great powers, of which the United States is one. The question may be asked, what makes a nation a great power? Although it is not easy to answer that question satisfactorily, we can at least name several elements of world power.

No small nation has sufficient *territory*, or *wealth*, or *material resources* to be a great power. If a country is small, its population also is small, especially when compared with that of the larger countries. Austria would not have attempted to browbeat Russia as she did Serbia at the beginning of the World War in 1914, nor would Germany have treated France as she treated Belgium. These small countries were not able to protect themselves and were therefore subjected to injury and humiliation. When a nation occupies a small land area, it lacks not only mineral resources, but also extensive systems of factories and railways and other means of creating wealth. Such a country is a pigmy, and a great power must be a giant.

World power depends upon political and military strength. A country may have a vast population, as have China and India, but, if its government is not well

Why the
World War
did not
affect the
Monroe
Doctrine.

What is a
great
power?

Why no
small
country is
a great
power.

organized and sufficiently powerful to protect its people, world position and power is impossible. A world power must therefore have a *strong government*. This does not mean that the country is well governed, but that, in its dealings with its neighbors, its government can protect its national interests as well as gain most of the advantages that it needs. In order to do this, it must have a vigorous diplomatic corps that is made up of able men, well trained in the work. A country that loses most of its diplomatic battles, as did Germany before 1914, must probably be satisfied to occupy a secondary position, or it must do what Germany did, depend upon the "mailed fist," that is, it must threaten war, and if necessary, resort to war. Unless there is in existence a powerful world government or suitable understanding among the great nations, a world power must have *an army and a navy large enough to protect itself*. In the past the only countries that could be protected by small armies were those which were guarded by nature, as was Great Britain by the English Channel and the United States by the two oceans. These countries, however, depend for defense upon powerful navies.

A world power must have *prestige*. A business man who has gained a reputation either for his firm or for a particular kind of goods can outsell his competitors and possibly drive them from the market. A nation which has the name of getting what it wants, of carrying through a policy which it starts, or of always playing fair, will, by virtue of that reputation, win out over its competitors, other things being equal. If a new country, such as the United States of America, is to gain the first world position, it must depend on its commanding position, or its limitless resources. Because America is larger and has more natural resources than her European rivals, she should be the foremost world power of the future, even

Influence
of govern-
ment, an
army, and
a navy on
world
position.

Prestige:
its impor-
tance and
how it may
be gained.

if she did not occupy the commanding position between the Atlantic and the Pacific.

INTERNATIONAL METHODS AND DEFENSE

How
treaties
are made.

309. The Making of Treaties.—Agreements made between two countries are usually called treaties. They are ordinarily made at the seat of government of one of the countries. The foreign secretary of that government



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negotiates the treaty with the ambassador or minister who represents the other country at that capital. At the close of a war, however, the provisions of a treaty of peace are usually arranged at the capital of some neutral nation. A peace treaty is ordinarily negotiated by special representatives from the two or more governments.

A treaty is made by our President through the Department of State; but it must be ratified by two thirds of the Senate of the United States. In order that a treaty

The part of
the Senate
in treaty-
making.

may not be rejected by the Senate, the President usually consults the leaders of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. At the close of the World War this was not done, with the result that the treaty was not ratified. The Senate does not hesitate to reject the whole or part of a treaty or to amend any section.

310. The Consular Service.—The diplomatic service, which looks after the international affairs of the United States as a nation, should not be confused with the consular service, which takes charge of commercial interests of our people in foreign lands. The diplomatic corps numbers only a few ambassadors and about a score of ministers, whereas consuls are located in all important foreign cities.

The duties of consuls are varied and exacting. Each consul is obliged to report to the Department of State the amount of foreign commerce within his district, including the character of the imports and the countries to which exports are sent. He looks after the welfare of American merchants abroad who may need his services, takes charge of invoices of goods shipped to the United States, aids travelers, and sends special reports on subjects that American citizens wish to investigate.¹

311. The American Army.—In both Great Britain and the United States, there has always been opposition to a large standing army. In the early years of the twentieth century, when Great Britain should have had a huge military force, she refused to create an army or resort to conscription. In that country and in the United States, in time of peace armies have been recruited by voluntary enlistment.

During the nineteenth century, we depended upon an army of about twenty-five thousand men. After the

Distinction
between
diplomatic
and consular
services.

Some things
that a consul
must do.

Small
armies in
Great
Britain and
United
States.

¹ Among semi-barbarous peoples, cases affecting citizens of the United States are tried in consular courts, because the courts of that country can not decide cases fairly, according to American standards.

Increase of
the army
(1898-
1919).

Spanish-American War, this force was increased to several times that number, and, soon after the outbreak of the World War, but before we were drawn into the conflict, the number was increased again. In spite of the warnings of a distinguished ex-president, Theodore Roosevelt, no steps were taken to enlarge the army greatly until we were actually engaged in war with Germany. At the very beginning of the World War, we depended upon voluntary enlistment, but almost immediately thereafter we provided for a selective draft. The first draft army was made up of able-bodied men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty who did not have dependents. Later, a law was passed for the drafting of men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, but the war closed before this army was really mobilized. An army of about two million men was transported to France before fighting actually ceased.

The Ameri-
can militia.

In colonial times and during the nineteenth century, the American people depended to a considerable extent upon a militia force. For a long time this has been called the national guard, but it was not until 1916 that it was practically reorganized as a part of the American army.

Efficiency
of army
and officers.

The value of an army depends far more upon its organization, training, and equipment than upon its size. Quite as important is the skill of the officers and the organization of the General Staff. Since 1802 officers have been trained for the American army at the West Point Military Academy. Officers are also prepared in other schools, and civilian camps have been established at which the rudiments of military tactics have been taught.

Why we
need a large
navy.

312. The American Navy.—Our geographical situation makes us more dependent upon a navy than upon an army. It is possible to organize an army within a few months, but it takes longer to create a navy. The United

States now has the second largest navy in the world, and, before a ten-year naval holiday was declared by the First Arms Conference, she was building more battleships and other war vessels than any other country.

Some of our naval vessels are used chiefly for coast defense. All important harbors are well protected also by batteries and by mines located along the ship channels. The most powerful weapon of coast defense is the submarine, which depends upon torpedoes for the destruction of enemy vessels.

Modern wars are fought chiefly by engineers; therefore our engineers should not be inferior to those of any opponent. Since 1845, we have had a Naval Academy at Annapolis, Maryland, for the training of naval officers. In addition many of our seacoast states have naval militia.

313. The Future.—At no time in history has it been more difficult than now to decide what should be the policy of the nation and of the world toward future wars and toward other nations in time of peace. A score of years ago it was thought that the making of permanent peace among nations was a matter of only a short time. Since the World War, we have been less hopeful, because we

The problem of coast defense.



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AN AMERICAN FLEET IN REVIEW

Importance
of the
engineer
and naval
officer.

For what
shall we
prepare?

realize how easy it is for one country to drag into a conflict a number of others who prefer peace to war. A League of Nations has been organized, with the hope of bringing peace, but it has no authority to enforce its decisions against its own members, and certainly has no influence over those who do not belong to the league. It is possible that this country or the League or conferences will work out some permanent and satisfactory plans leading to real disarmament. If the world spends less money on navies and has a smaller number of young men in standing armies, that money and the services of those men could be devoted to the arts of peace and of civilization and to the promotion of culture. Many people believe that war is a necessity, and that the severe struggle of military conflict is good for the bodies and souls of men. But what of the aftermath of poverty and distress, of unrest and disorder! What of the lowered tone of morals, public and private, and of the carnival of crime which has been sweeping America and Europe in recent years!

Why peace
must ac-
complish
more than
war.

If our schools give a slipshod, half-hearted education, absolutely lacking in thoroughness; if our industrial life is noted for its inefficiency, its poor methods, and its lack of results; if society is divided into classes in which a few have most of the wealth, power, influence, and rights, while the many bear most of the burdens and meet with nothing but injustice; then peace rather than war is the failure. We read with horror of men shot down brutally in great masses, yet some of us have never given a thought to the army of workers that every week give up their lives as victims of modern economic progress. In a single year, in this civilized country of ours, five times as many people are killed in industry as fell on both sides at the great three days' battle of Gettysburg. But the list of the dead is not all. The injured victims of our indus-

trial system number many millions every year; no European country had so large an annual list of wounded soldiers in the World War.

Real preparedness is a process of more thorough preparation, of greater efficiency in the school, in the office, and in the shop—of better character. It will not be content with selfishness, personal or national, nor will it be satisfied with a patriotism of peace one whit less true and whole-hearted than the patriotism evoked by war. It demands that we give thought, and ever more thought, to our country and its problems, for our country and its needs.

Preparedness as the path to personal and national greatness.

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Questions

1. What European peoples first organized modern nations? About how long ago was this done? What do you understand by diplomacy? Explain the difference between an ambassador and a minister. What is a treaty? Explain the international complications due to (a) the vast expansion of international commerce, (b) new colonies, (c) high national tariffs, and (d) international trade rivalry.
2. What is constitutional law? Statute law? International law? Where and how is international law made? Tell about the international courts.
3. Name two important international conferences. What war was settled by each? How many Hague peace conferences have been called? How was the Hague court developed, and what cases does it decide?
4. What is the League to Enforce Peace? Describe the constitution of the League of Nations. (Explain (a) seat of government, (b) organization of the lower house, and (c) organization of the League Council.)
5. Explain the significance of the geographical location of the United States. Contrast the international situation in Europe and in America. Show in what ways we are dependent upon Europe and to what extent we have been independent of the Old World.
6. Why has the United States been the chief champion of neutrals? What has she done for neutrals? What is meant by international arbitration? Explain attempts made to use international arbitration on a wider scale.
7. Explain the Monroe Doctrine. What were the principles of the Monroe Doctrine at the beginning? Name two ways in which powerful European countries have tried to gain advantage for themselves in Latin-America. Is it true that the World War made the Monroe Doctrine unimportant?
8. What do you understand by a great power? Name three elements of world power and show why a small country does not often possess any of them. Explain why "world power depends upon political and military strength." How may a world power gain prestige?

*Primarily for teachers.

9. At the close of a war where and by whom is a treaty likely to be made? Who makes ordinary treaties? If the United States wishes to make a treaty, by whom are the negotiations conducted? What committee of Congress is consulted, and by whom must the treaty be ratified? Explain the general work of a consul, and give a number of his duties.

10. What kind of army did we have in the United States before the World War? How were men "selected" for the American army during the World War? What is meant by a militia? By a General Staff? By the West Point Military Academy?

11. What is the importance of a navy to the United States? What other country has a navy larger than ours? Explain our problem of coast defense. Where is our naval academy located?

12. Why is it possible or desirable to have partial disarmament of the leading powers? Name ways in which peace may accomplish more than war.

CHAPTER XXIV

CONCLUSION

1. Citizenship
 - a. What citizenship is
 - b. What citizenship involves
2. Democracy
 - a. The nature of democracy
 - b. The people and their government
 - c. World obligations of democracy

CITIZENSHIP

Citizenship
as member-
ship.

314. What Citizenship is.—As stated at the beginning of this book, and intimated repeatedly throughout, citizenship is membership. We usually think of citizenship, however, only in connection with membership in the largest society of all, the nation. When we speak of a citizen, we think of him as a citizen of the United States, although the Constitution stresses the fact that a citizen of the United States is also a citizen of the state. It is well for us to keep this fact in mind. It is also well to remember, that, just as we are citizens of a commonwealth or state within the Union, we are *members* of all other groups to which we belong. These would include groups that we usually consider political, such as the community (city or village), social groups such as the family, the school, and the church, and, at least for adults, economic groups such as the business in which one has a part.

Relationships of
members of
any group.

A person can not be a member of any group without having relations both with other members of the group and with the group as a whole.

315. What Citizenship Involves.—The author has tried to show that citizenship is not chiefly a matter for adults, that most of us are citizens from our birth, and that we are citizens and have civic rights and duties whether we wish them or not. The old idea that citizenship is confined to voters and that civic affairs are chiefly a matter of government is not only untrue but it is of very little value to boys and girls. When we grow to manhood and womanhood, citizenship may mean more to us than it does to-day; but citizenship is of little importance except at the moment that it brings us opportunities to help ourselves and serve others. That can be done at only one time, the present.

Because citizenship is membership, it involves civic rights and obligations in the home even from early childhood. It means something to us in every one of our school years, and it helps us as adults to find our proper place in business, social activities, and community life. School courses in citizenship are intended to prepare youths for future activities and responsibilities. But, after all, the main purpose is to give training *in* citizenship. We need to learn facts about government and about society, not only for use in later years, but because of their value to us at present. If we develop habits of learning what is right, of looking at things sanely, of forming judgments uninfluenced by prejudice or persuasion, we shall do much more than make for ourselves good character. We shall not simply be preparing for citizenship, but *we shall be good citizens, and we shall be becoming better citizens.*

A good citizen is not necessarily prominent in political affairs. A man who wants to know more of life as it is lived with his fellows, a man who does not shirk problems, but seeks to solve them, a man who has worked out for himself high standards of right and wrong, a man

Importance
of citizen-
ship at the
present re-
gardless of
age.

How good
citizenship
may be
developed
in youth.

Character-
istics of a
good citi-
zen.

who wants to live the largest life that he can and play the greatest part possible in human society—such a man is a good citizen.

DEMOCRACY

Democracy
and citizen-
ship.

316. The Nature of Democracy.—*What citizenship is to the individual, democracy is to the group.* We say that democracy is popular self-government, and we think of it chiefly in terms of presidents, elections, and laws. It is infinitely more than that. If a good citizen is a man of knowledge, high principles, civic spirit, and good judgment, then democracy is good group organization suited to the needs of the group itself, and capable of doing easily and economically the things required by the group.

How demo-
cratic gov-
ernment
depends on
other forms
of demo-
cratic group
organiza-
tion.

Democracy is therefore as much a characteristic of home, school, and shop as it is of government in city, state, or nation. No people will have a democratic government who do not have democratic group organization. If our homes are not good homes, giving boys and girls what those boys and girls need, if our schools are autocratically organized and administered, if our factories are managed by oppressive capitalists or equally oppressive labor organizations that try to make slaves of those with whom they are associated, the nation can not be democratic, no matter what its form of government may be. This means that, in order that we may speak of the nation as democratic, the nation as a whole, and its business, and every one of the governments or other groups organized to carry on the national life must be well organized for the good of each group or the whole society.

Democratic
legislation.

317. The People and Their Government.—No people can be democratic who do not have *fair laws, justly administered.* If the laws of a nation are made by one class for the benefit of that class, there is no democracy in that country. If the laws are made presumably by

the whole people, but simply for the benefit of one class, there is little democracy in that country. If we wish to know whether a people is democratic or not, we ought not simply to ask if the people made the laws, but we ought to learn whether the laws are so just and fair that men are able to enjoy freedom and to live decently and uprightly with their fellows. True democracy is the best antidote for Bolshevism and anarchism.

The greatest test of any democratic people is found in its courts of justice. Though laws may be fair in a country, every citizen does not necessarily get a square deal. Even if the laws are not absolutely fair, if the courts are democratic, they will see that *justice is done between man and man*, that the rich man receives no more favor than the one who is poor, and that the individual of prominence and influence does not take advantage of his neighbor who is little known or unable to protect himself. In order to be democratic, a nation should have good laws, but it must have courts that are just to enforce them.

Democratic administration of justice.

318. World Obligations of Democracy.—When President Wilson in his wonderful message to Congress on the second day of April, 1917, urged that America should "make the world safe for democracy," others suggested that it might be wise to make democracy safe for the world. It can be seen from the preceding paragraphs that as yet the world has comparatively little democracy. In recent years, the United States has adopted some new forms of democracy, but most European peoples are far more undemocratic than we. Among democratic problems of America are these: How shall we manage our affairs with other nations in a democratic way? Is it possible for treaties to be made democratically? If we apply the golden rule, the essence of democracy, to those foreign nations with which we have dealings, shall we not lose in prestige, in influence, and in opportunities for trade?

Limited use of democracy, especially in world affairs.

Obligations
of American
democracy
and world
leadership.

It stands to reason that the most democratic nation of the world to-day, certainly the most democratic world power, must assume obligations to the world because it is democratic and in advance of other countries. This does not mean that the United States should participate actively in European affairs or should allow herself to become involved in controversies which do not affect either America or her world position. It does mean that we must coöperate with other nations in promoting peace and good will throughout the earth. It does mean that we must not selfishly refuse to study world problems and bear our share of world burdens. It does mean that, wherever our experience or resources are of value to others, we should be willing to accept a position of leadership. It does mean that we should apply outside of the United States the same principles of fair treatment and square dealing which we have developed, as democracy, within our own boundaries. It does mean that in our dealings with other peoples, selfish aggrandizement and unfair commercial advantage shall have no place. It does mean that, as the greatest power of the western hemisphere and probably the greatest world power of the future, we should try to share with some other peoples, less fortunate than ourselves, those advantages which have come to us, because our lot has been cast in a nation so greatly favored and so democratic.

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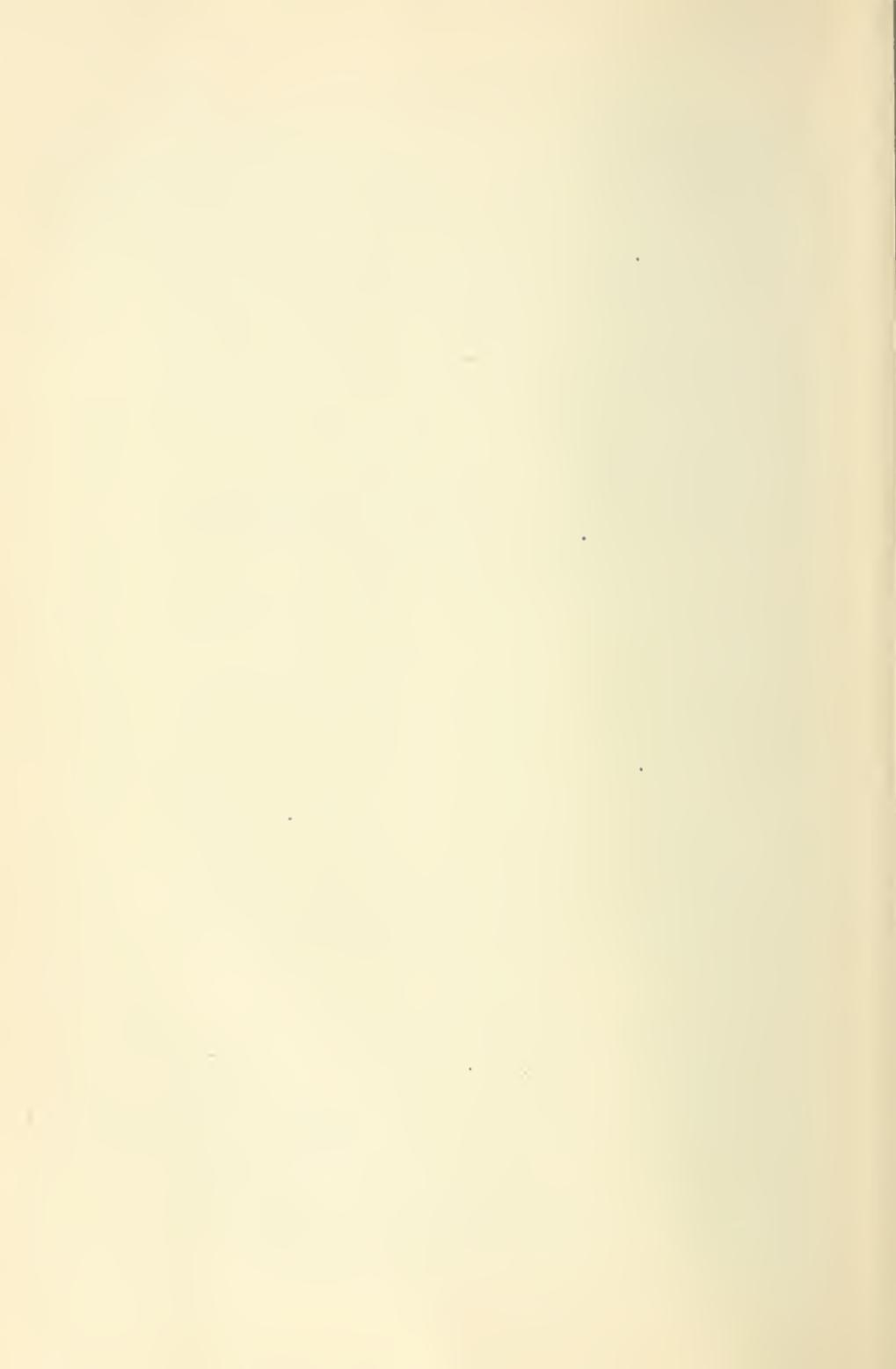
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APPENDIX B



STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF RETURNS ON A QUESTIONNAIRE ON TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP¹

(North Central Association Secondary Schools)

By C. O. Davis, University of Michigan

Number of schools reporting 1,180

Number developing citizenship through

A. Arousing sentiments by means of

I. Assembly talks 1,164

Frequency of meetings

(a) Daily 33

(b) Weekly 520

II. Music of stirring type 1,142

III. Oral readings before classes

1. Schools having 768

2. Schools not having 210

IV. Prescribed class readings

1. Schools having 869

2. Schools not having 175

V. Dramatics

1. Schools having 398

2. Schools not having 614

VI. Pageantry

1. Schools having 352

2. Schools not having 674

VII. Moving pictures

1. Schools having 290

2. Schools not having 710

VIII. Stereopticons

1. Schools having 438

2. Schools not having 541

IX. Literature taught inspirationally

1. Schools claiming to do so 1,030

2. Schools failing to do so 38

X. Visits to places and institutions

1. Schools doing so 495

2. Schools not doing so 538

¹Abridged from summary in School Review, 28 (1920), 279-282.

B. Giving citizenship information through	
I. A course in civics	
1. Schools having	1,148
2. In course separated from history .	989
II. A course in elementary sociology	
1. Schools having	298
2. Schools not having	770
III. A course in elementary economics	
1. Schools having	696
2. Schools not having	406
IV. A course in current events	
1. Schools having	1,008
2. Schools not having	121
V. A course in morals, manners, and life problems	
.	112
VI. A course in occupations (or similar course)	. 194
VII. History taught by stressing	
1. The worth of being free	1,057
2. American ideals	639
3. Development of free institutions .	446
4. Current social problems	403
5. Responsibilities of citizenship	155
VIII. Biography studied	
1. In some way unspecified	1,012
2. In history and English courses . .	657
3. In special programs or independently	461
IX. Knowledge of the problems of capital and labor gained through	
1. Assembly talks	161
2. Debates and discussions	330
3. Regular class work	526
4. Readings and current events reports	176
X. Training to use leisure time wholesomely by means of	
1. School athletics	159
2. Lectures and talks	301
3. Suggested readings	188
4. Supervision of student affairs	173
5. Student clubs and societies	194

C. Giving practice in citizenship through connection with

I.	Junior Red Cross Societies	
1.	Schools having	880
2.	Schools not having	172
II.	Junior Good Citizenship League or similar organization	
1.	Schools having	76
2.	Schools not having	658
III.	Boy Scout Organization	
1.	Schools having	651
2.	Schools not having	305
IV.	Girl Scout Organization or Campfire Girls	
1.	Schools having	522
2.	Schools not having	387
V.	Thrift clubs	
1.	Schools having	421
2.	Schools not having	458
VI.	School paper	
1.	Schools having	666
2.	Schools not having	360
VII.	Military training	
1.	Schools having	208
2.	Schools not having	720
VIII.	Debating clubs	
1.	Schools having	863
2.	Schools not having	194
IX.	Mock elections	
1.	Schools having	568
2.	Schools not having	379
X.	Student self-government agencies	
1.	Schools having	306
2.	Schools not having	550
3.	Schools having formal machinery for	242
4.	Schools having teachers exert much control	204
5.	Schools having teachers exert little control	255

C. Giving practice in citizenship through connection with
XI. Schools inculcating patriotism through

1. Patriotic celebrations	96
2. Talks and lectures	189
3. Self-government agencies	223
4. Student coöperative associations .	169
5. Participation in school organizations	381
6. Athletics	123
7. Regular class work	353
8. School discipline	127

XII. Community centers

1. Schools having	373
2. Schools not having	398

Authorities believing training for citizenship can best be
secured through

1. Good teaching in all branches	346
2. Courses in the social sciences and literature	188
3. Stressing by teachers of ideals of conduct	381
4. Personal example of teachers	277
5. Placing responsibilities for pupils personally	284
6. Student organizations	328
7. Providing out-of-school services for society	149
8. School discipline	150

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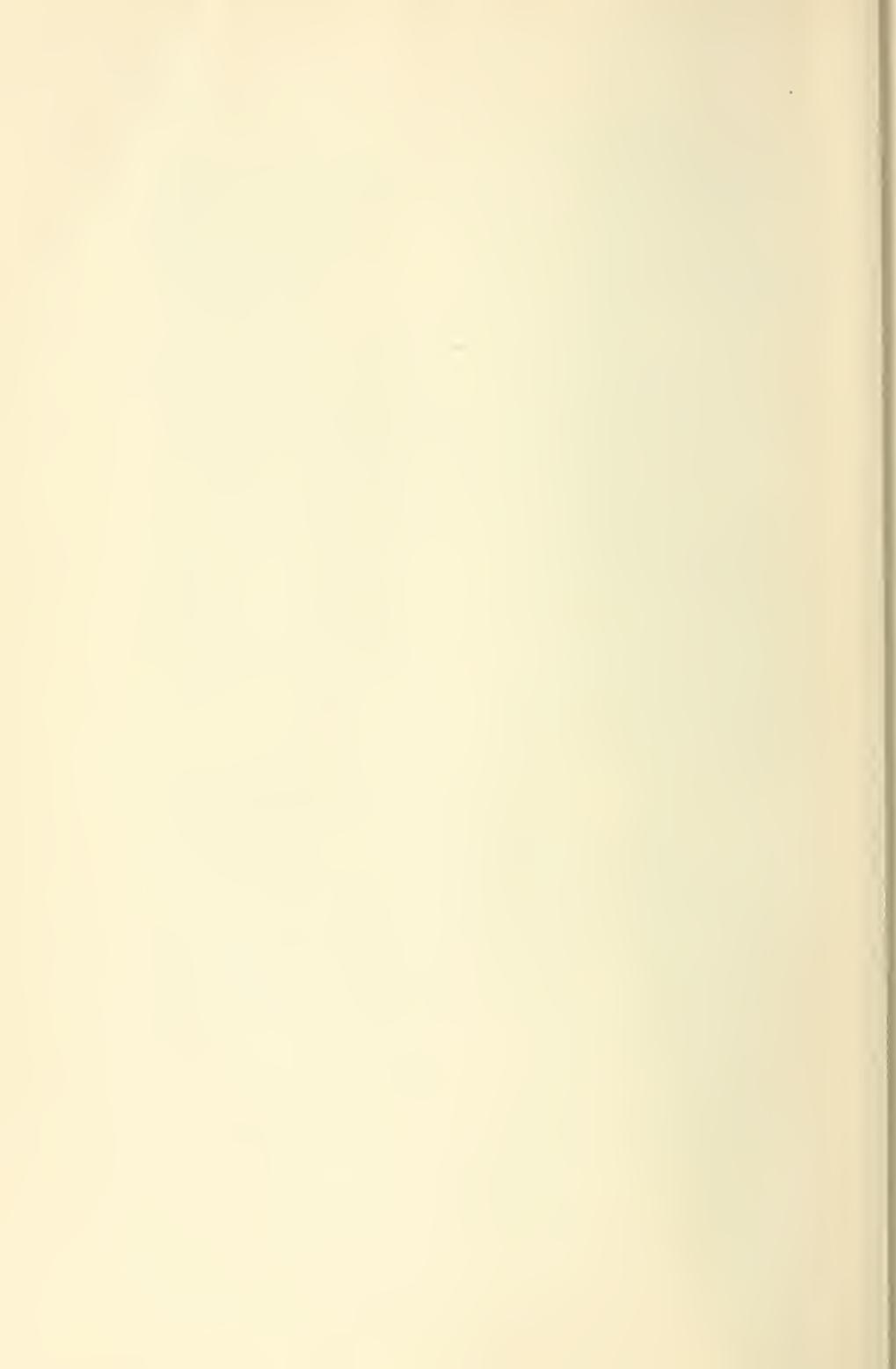
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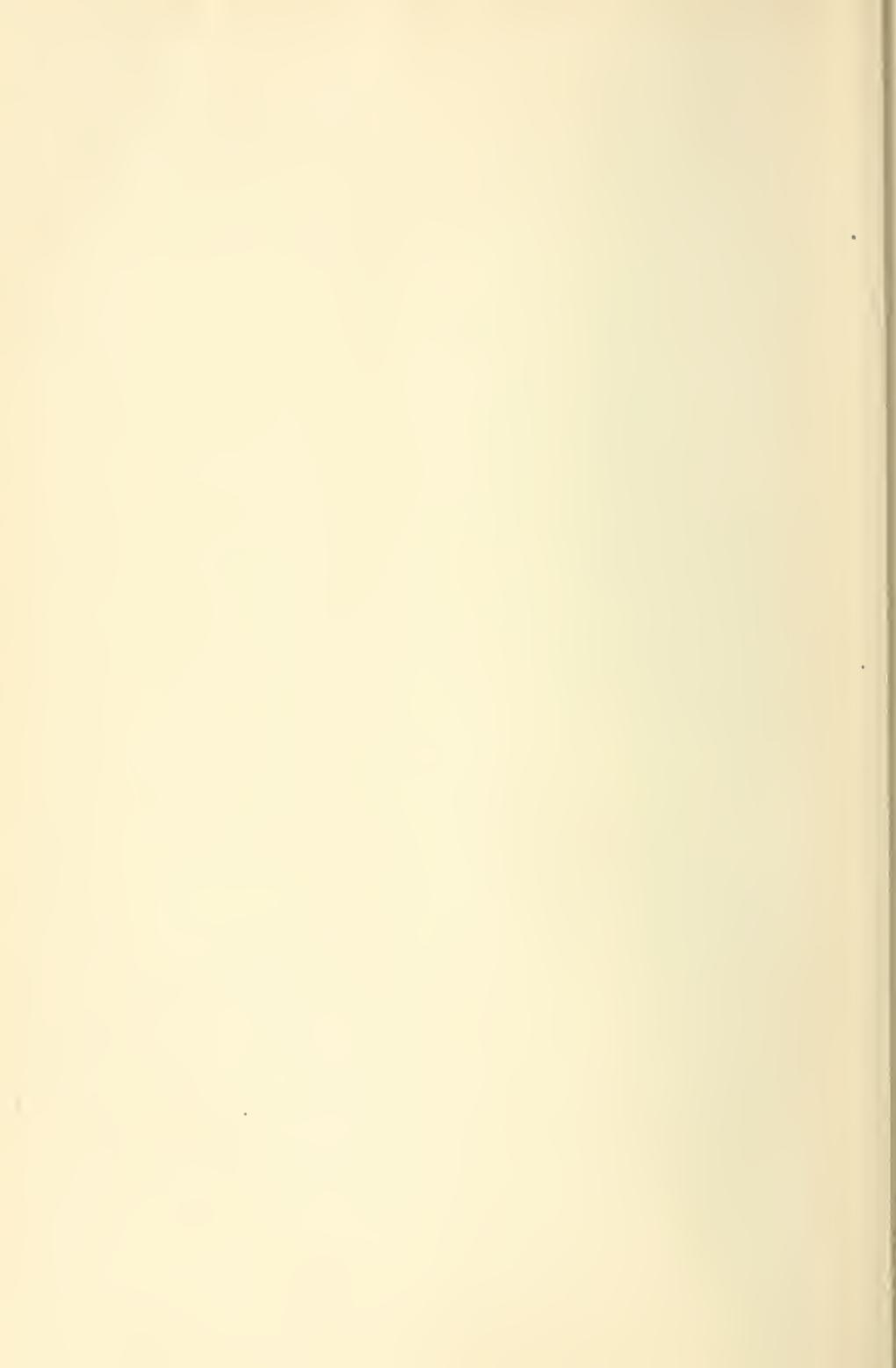
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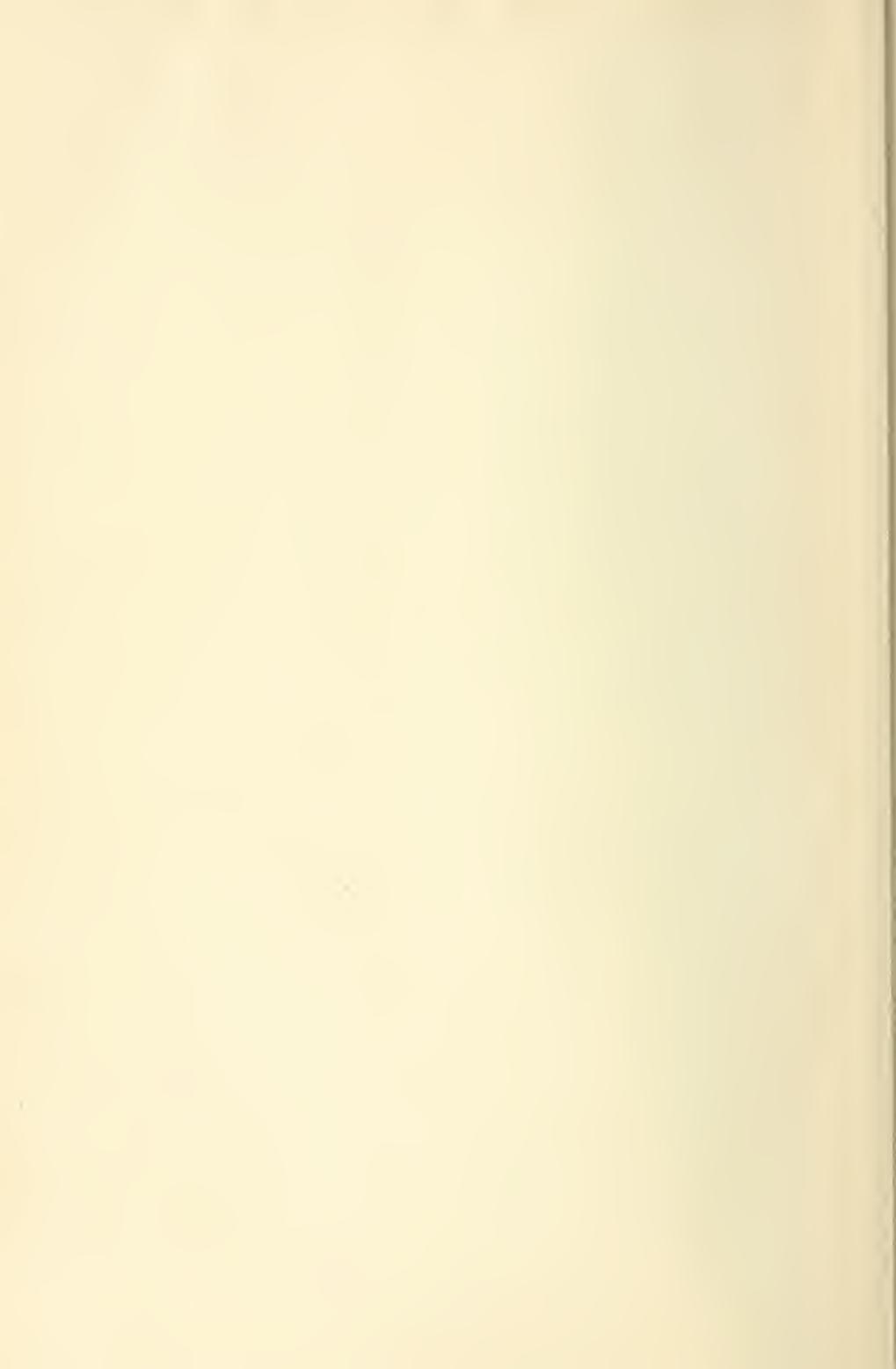
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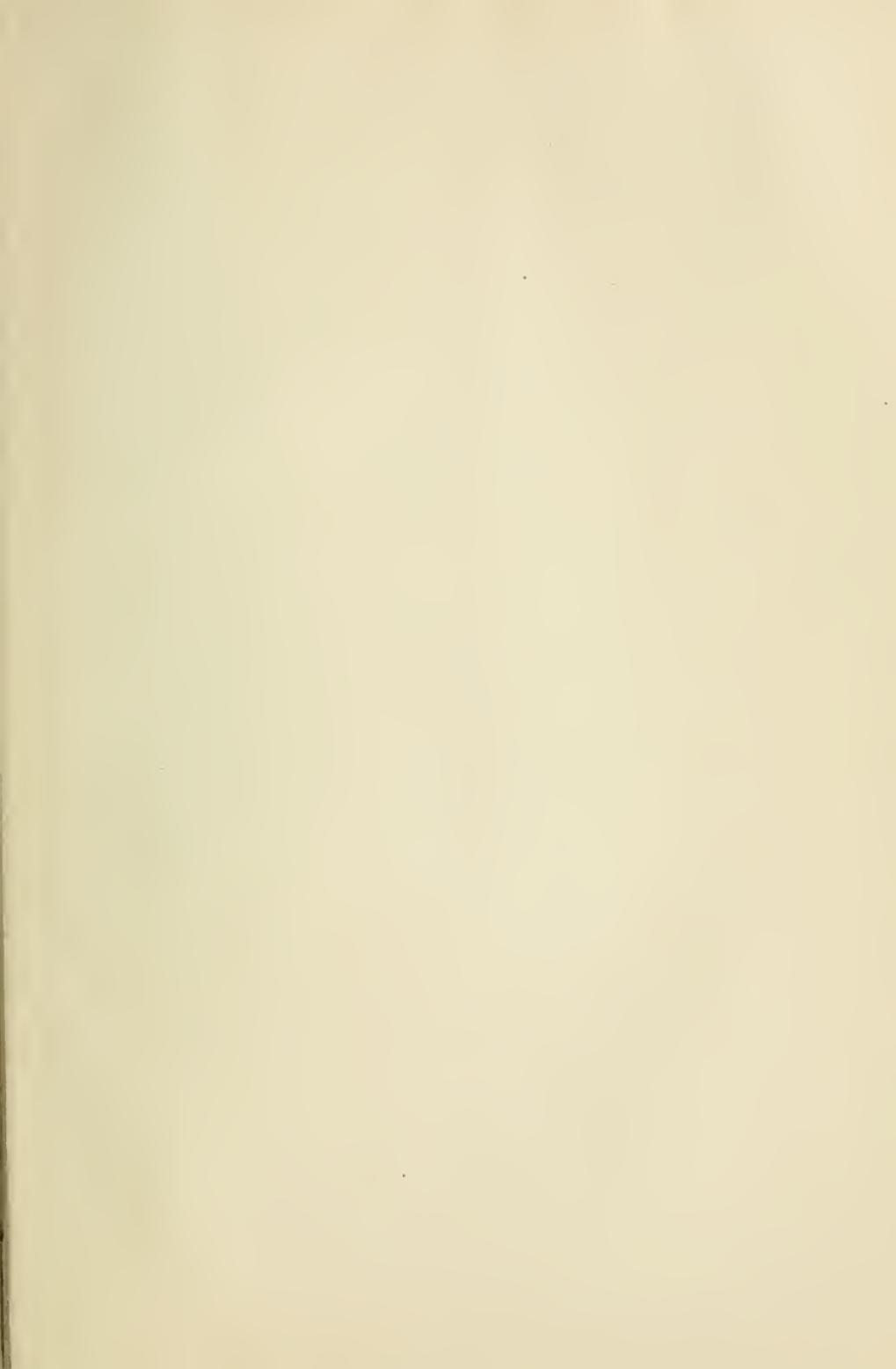
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